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ABSTRACT

Published evaluation reports about educational intervention programs sponsored by Israel's Project Renewal are summarized and analyzed in this report. The programs reported on fall into the following categories: (1) intervention programs aimed at the family; (2) curriculum-based intervention programs; (3) school-related enrichment programs; (4) intensive intervention programs (including residential centers); (5) programs aimed at the relinking of youth in distress to the main social institutions; (6) adult education programs; (7) informal organization projects (two in development towns, one in a summer camp); and (8) community-based intervention programs. Appendixes contain one- or two-page description/evaluation summaries of some programs dealt with in the report and a number of tables of educational statistics. English and Hebrew bibliographies are provided as well as a publications list (in Hebrew and in English) of the National Council of Jewish Women's Research Institute for Innovation in Education. (CMG)

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A SURVEY OF EVALUATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION PROGRAMS SPONSORED BY PROJECT RENEWAL

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The National Council of Jewish Women
RESEARCH INSTITUTE FOR INNOVATION IN EDUCATION
THE HEBREW UNIVERSITY OF JERUSALEM • SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים • בית הספר לחינוך

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המכון לחקר הטיפוח בחינוך

THE NCJW RESEARCH INSTITUTE FOR INNOVATION IN EDUCATION

The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education was established in 1968 by The National Council of Jewish Women, U.S.A. at the School of Education of the Hebrew University of Jerusalem.

The Institute was established with the goal of undertaking research and carrying out new experimental programs in the area of the educational nurturing of the weaker segments of Israel's population. Through a wide range of research and applied activities, the Institute aims to confront the special educational problems and needs of children and youth from these strata in the population so as to promote their educational and social advancement. It attempts to give them the opportunity to develop their potential to attain social mobility and to participate on equal terms in Israeli society.

The Institute operates within the School of Education and is administered by a Board of Directors, an Academic Board and an Executive Committee. Since its establishment, research has been conducted in the following areas: Early Childhood Education - Education in the Family and the Community - School Integration - Informal Education - Career Education and its Evaluation - Recovery and Second Chance Institutions - Cross-Cultural Research - Experimentation and Intervention in the School and its Evaluation.

Research findings are published as research reports. A formal report on the Institute's activities is published periodically and updates of the Institute's work appear also in Newsletters.

As a result of the knowledge obtained through the various research activities, the Institute is involved in the implementation of a number of educational programs, in cooperation with government offices and other institutions. These include: HIPPY (Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters) - HATAF (Home Activities for Toddlers and their Families) - MANOF (A Residential Youth Center for Rehabilitation of Disattached Youth) - the Hebrew University Apprenticeship Program.

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the National Council of Jewish Women, U.S.A.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page	
	Program	Table
INTRODUCTION	1	
SECTION A:		
INTERVENTION PROGRAMS AIMED AT THE FAMILY	6	
HIPPY - Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters	10	167
HATAF - Home Activities for Toddlers and Their Families	22	172
TOY LIBRARIES FOR PARENTS	26	173
PARENT-INSTRUCTION GROUPS IN DISADVANTAGED AREAS	38	176
KEDMA - Parent-Teacher Discussion Groups	42	177
FAMILY SITUATION - A Mass Communication Project for Parents	44	178
SECTION B:		
CURRICULUM BASED INTERVENTION PROGRAMS	50	
NILI - Individualized Learning Experiment	52	179
TOAM - Practice and Diagnosis Through Computers	56	180
SECTION C:		
SCHOOL RELATED ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS	60	
YULA (Extended Study Day) and YOCHAI (Extended School Day)	62	181
THE SUPPORT SYSTEM	73	185
TUTORIAL PROJECTS	80	186
SECTION D:		
INTENSIVE INTERVENTION PROGRAMS	93	
MANOF - Project for the Rehabilitation of Youth	95	193
KEDMA - Project for the Rehabilitation of Youth	99	194
RESIDENTIAL CENTERS	104	195

	Page Program	Table
SECTION E:		
PROGRAMS AIMED AT THE RELINKING OF YOUTH IN DISTRESS TO THE MAIN SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS	117	
STREET CORNER GROUPS - YOUTH IN DISTRESS	119	196
GIRLS IN DISTRESS	127	198
SECTION F:		
ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS	133	
TEHILA - An Educational Program for the Adult Learner	135	200
SECTION G:		
INFORMAL ORGANIZATION PROJECTS	138	
SHELEF - Twelfth Graders to Development Towns	140	201
INFORMAL ORGANIZATION IN DEVELOPMENT TOWNS	145	
SUMMER CAMPS	147	
SECTION H:		
COMMUNITY BASED INTERVENTION PROGRAMS	149	
BRIDGING THE GAP - University Graduates and Political Development	151	202
THE EDUCATIONAL WELFARE PROGRAM	153	
(Table: The Allocation of Resources)		
SUMMARY	161	
APPENDIX		
Description and evaluation tables	165	
Education in Numbers		203
BIBLIOGRAPHIES	210	
English		
Hebrew		
The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education List		

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INTRODUCTION

This report was prepared at the request of the International Committee for the Evaluation of the Project Renewal. Since many of the educational programs and interventions funded by Project Renewal have already been evaluated, it was a welcome decision to compile all the existing data and findings before deciding to undertake further evaluation studies in the realm of education. In the process of collecting the printed and published material, it became entirely clear that the large amount of material available would call for an investigation both beyond our capability and beyond the needs of the International Committee on Evaluation. It was thus decided to limit this report to the following: 1) summaries and analyses of published evaluation studies; and 2) studies that have been done only on Project Renewal programs (or those initiated before Project Renewal existed).

This decision excluded numerous publications from this survey, publications that analyzed educational issues related to the disadvantaged and/or described programs aimed at this issue. This decision also excluded studies and evaluations in the realm of the education of the disadvantaged which did not relate to Project Renewal (e.g., the School Reform studies). The material for our report was culled from libraries and through direct contact with the agencies and researchers who performed the evaluations. All written sections of this report were sent to the relevant researchers for their comments; some -- though not all -- reacted by editing, changing or adding to our presentation of their findings.

Thus, all of the material that constitutes our report has been a priori defined for us as published evaluation reports about educational intervention programs, which were ultimately funded by Project Renewal. But still we were faced with some problems that called for decisions.

Only a certain proportion of Project Renewal's funding (in the realm of education) goes to programs that can be strictly defined as educational (i.e., schools). The rest is being directed toward the care and rehabilitation of those children and youth whose school careers were terminated, and whose drifting and delinquency (potential or actual) threaten the welfare of their whole community, as a result of which they become target communities for Project Renewal.

Although, in the realm of Israeli interministerial relations, the programs aimed at such "disassociated youth" do not fall solely within the domain of the Ministry of Education, we decided to include some of them here, since they are primarily educational programs. An even more complicated issue is involved in our decision to include here a discussion of evaluation studies of residential centers. The complication emerges from the fact that Project Renewal, as a community-based project, does not fund residential care which, in the Israeli context, without exception, operates on an extracommunity basis.

We decided, nevertheless, to include a section on some of the relevant residential programs, because we believe that the absorption of such youngsters within a residential setting relieves their families of a burden that is often hard to bear and offers the communities from which they are removed a better chance for rehabilitation. It seemed to us to be an Israeli-specific development that great stress be placed on early childhood education in general, and on the family in particular, as one of the main vehicles of education for this age-group. It is, however, no less surprising that Israel revealed similar vigor in offering opportunities for reeducation through residential care for those adolescents whose families do not function well in the larger society.

It seems appropriate to say a word about the Educational Welfare Program, the program of educational renewal that predated Project Renewal and provided the latter with an established framework.

The structure of the Educational Welfare Program provided the definition of the target populations. Essentially, it has two main target populations: a) that of the Settlement Program, which -- like Project Renewal -- is aimed at about 100 of the most disadvantaged communities in Israel. It should be noted that in those 100 communities all children should be covered by Project Renewal -- not just the school population; and b) that of the Age-Grade Program which is geared to three crucial transitional age-groups nationwide: early childhood, adolescence and young adulthood.

These are the important transitional ages -- first entering school or Grade 1; the transition to secondary school; the transition to college and/or adulthood. This program is entirely school oriented.

The definitions of the target populations establish the frameworks for the programs dealt with in this report as well:

	Settlement Program	Age-Grade Program
Proportion of children in the community included	All those in the community	Some of the children in the community
Type of children included	Mostly dropouts, working youth and drifters	School-bound students

Among other things, this may explain the inclusion here of a program that used television and the impact of which was evaluated. (See page 44). Not only was it a well-structured program, but it was the only one, in the area discussed here, that used television to reach the entire population in the country, although that was not its "target population."

As to the methodology of this report, we have already discussed our decision to include only analyses of projects that have been evaluated. We felt compelled, however, to modify this decision almost at the outset and to incorporate into the report not only rigorous or sophisticated evaluations; had we done so, we would have had very few programs on which to report. One cannot always detect the rationale of programs that have been evaluated and the strategies of implementation are not always clearly stated or described.

Only rarely did we find a clearly stated research design and sometimes the data-processing procedures are not fully specified. In spite of such deficiencies in conceptualization or planning, we choose to include all reported studies, mainly because we assumed that they have had an impact on the shaping of policy. Whenever we detected the existence of more than one evaluation of a particular program, we included them all, so as to provide as broad a basis for comparison and analysis as possible. We also appended a one-page summary of each program as well as a one-page abbreviated evaluation. We hoped in this way to lend our report greater practical value. At the same time, however, we refrained from making outright judgements on rating the evaluation studies reported here. The main reason for not doing so was that, in most cases, the written report did not include all the relevant information for such rating.

Going back to the raw data and interviewing the researchers who had done the evaluations would have gone beyond the scope and aims of this report. In those few cases in which scholars, whose work is included here, did indeed respond to our queries and collaborated with us by explaining, clarifying or even rewriting certain sections of their works, we tended to be somewhat more directive. The appendix of this report includes a few selected tables about educational achievements and participation, mainly by continent of origin. We do not in any way wish to imply that these

data offer any proof of significant success, or lack of it in the Educational Welfare Program or Project Renewal. We add these tables only in order to give the reader a sense of the order of magnitude of the issue at hand.

It would seem that this is just a beginning of what should be an ongoing endeavor. In a society such as Israel, rich in educational experimentation on the one hand, and in evaluation studies on the other, surveys like this ought to be published every few years. It seems, moreover, that there is a place for the publication of a much broader survey which would describe not only evaluated educational programs but all available programs and projects aimed at educational enrichment whether they have been evaluated or not.

SECTION A

INTERVENTION PROGRAMS AIMED AT THE FAMILY

HIPPY

HATAF

TOY LIBRARIES FOR PARENTS

PARENT-INSTRUCTION GROUPS IN DISADVANTAGED AREAS

KEDMA

FAMILY SITUATION

The family is universally and legitimately responsible for biological continuity in all societies. Although many societies have established various institutions such as nursery schools, kindergartens, day care centers, etc., that participate in the socialization of the society's members, it is the family (whether nuclear or extended) that continues to fulfill the basic function of the primary socialization of children. The goals of socialization are the full integration of people into the society in which they are born, and to develop stable personalities as the members of society grow to adulthood. It is assumed that the more types of interaction between a child and a parent, the greater the range of behavior (both task-oriented and functional) in which the child will identify with the parent. From a functional point of view, it is crucial that the parent's perception of the use, significance and importance of the roles and relationships constituting that 'range of behavior' is congruent with the demands and organization of society. This is crucial because when activities within the family are congruent with society's needs, they are perceived by the family members as rewarding and important. When so perceived, ongoing participation of the family members (maintaining integrity) is reinforced, and orients the way in which they train their young.

In Israeli society, there are families with diverse cultural backgrounds and equally diverse are family activities, parents' perceptions and personal abilities that influence a family's objectives with respect to child-rearing. Educators and policymakers are well aware of the implications of this pluralism. Children from families that do not provide them with normative models and are disadvantaged to varying degrees with regard to society's educational

goals, may have severe problems. But parents are more and more aware of the arduous educational demands of Israeli society. They are amenable to many types of intervention, and programs for parents have been initiated to help children to better adjust, to enhance their skills in self-expression and interaction with their peers. In the Program for Parents interventions, the family is regarded as part of a social system that reinforces desirable behaviors, gives parents a stake in their children's development, provides easy access to new ideas and the opportunity to learn and practice those behaviors consonant with these ideas.

In this context it is important to take into account the changing status of women that has necessitated the creation of care alternatives for young children. The discovery of the importance of early childhood education grew out of an interesting interplay between profound social change and scholarly inquiry. Early education is provided in many countries under many rubrics: nursery school, kindergarten, day care center, Head Start, etc. Longitudinal studies of the effects of participation in Head Start indicate that the long-term gains provided educational and fiscal justification for the continuation of the program.*

Far too many Israeli children spend the third, fourth and fifth years of their lives understimulated, underchallenged, in spite of the fact that practically all children in these groups attend nursery or kindergarten. If so a considerable number of children of disadvantaged backgrounds remain understimulated and consequently underresourced in spite of the almost universal attendance in educa-

---

*Lazar cites the improvement in the children's ability to meet the minimal school requirements and the smaller number of children assigned to special education classes or those not promoted to the next grade. See in: Lazar, I., Hubbell, V.R., and Murray, H., 1977. Summary Report: the persistence of preschool effects. A long-term follow-up of fourteen infant and preschool experiments. DHEW Publication No. (OHDS).

tional programs, it seems to follow that their <u>families</u> ought to be the focus of the interventions.

The programs presented in this chapter, HIPPY, HATAF, PROGRAM FOR PARENTS and TOY LIBRARIES are important interventions, all of which are family based.

HIPPY

HIPPY -- the acronym for Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters -- is a nationally administered home-based program of early childhood education that was developed by Dr. Avima D. Lombard of the National Council of Jewish Women (NCJW) Research Institute for Innovation in Education, at the School of Education of The Hebrew University of Jerusalem. The program was initiated in 1969 as a field experiment. In 1975, it was funded by the Welfare Program of the Ministry of Education. A steering committee, composed of representatives of the Institute, the Ministry of Education and Culture, local municipal authorities, and the Community Centers Association, bears responsibility for the overall planning of the project and deals with issues affecting national policy. The day-to-day administration and operation of the program and its content are the province of the professional team based at the Institute. The program is operated under the aegis of the Educational Welfare Program and, in some instances, through Project Renewal.

HIPPY is a three-year home-based program for the educational enrichment of disadvantaged preschool children. By their active involvement in the program, the mothers of preschoolers become increasingly aware of their own strengths and potential as home educators. The program is based on a firm belief in both the important role of the home environment during early childhood in determining a child's future success, and in the importance of parents' desire and willingness to invest their efforts towards that goal.

The program's objectives are twofold:[1]

1. to increase the involvement of the mother in the intellectual development of her child, and to develop her confidence in her ability to contribute to it;

2. to help prepare the child for school and to enhance his chances for scholastic success.

The program includes structured learning materials and home instruction for mothers in their use, group meetings and professional guidance for all participants. The program activities are planned so as to be easily carried out at home and are designed to impart to the child various age-appropriate skills:

1. the ability to listen to verbal communication;
2. the acquisition of appropriate study and work habits;
3. the improvement and enrichment of formal language;
4. the acquisition of sensory discrimination skills;
5. the ability to use logical thinking and problem-solving skills in a variety of situations.

A mother who joins HIPPY receives a weekly packet of activity materials and is instructed by a paraprofessional aide in how they should be used in daily activities with her child. (The aide is herself a mother from the same neighborhood and is either a participant or a former participant in the program. The aides are guided and supervised by a professional team, including local and district coordinators.) These weekly meetings alternate between private home visits and group meetings. At the home-based meetings, the aide visits the mother at an appointed time every other week and uses role-playing to instruct the mother in the use of the materials. In the alternate week, the mothers, usually those who are being guided by the same aide, meet as a group. In these meetings, which are attended and led by the local coordinator, questions of common interest are discussed, and the next week's

material is reviewed, again using role-playing techniques. When the mother is illiterate, an older sibling chosen by the mother assumes the teaching role. The mother is encouraged to participate to the extent of her abilities, since she is the major focus of the program.

In 1992 HIPPY reached about 16,000 families in approximately 110 urban and rural communities throughout Israel. Participants in the program are drawn from families with four-year old children, whose mothers have less than 12 years of formal education.

EVALUATION STUDIES

Evaluation research has always been an integral part of the program. In the report on the initial experiment (Lombard 1973)[2] and in a paper about it (Lombard, Presser, Druk, 1979)[3] the impact of HIPPY on the cognitive development of participant children was studied. That research was carried out during 1969-72, following the children from kindergarten through Grade Two.

The sample, composed of 136 children (161 before 25 dropped out), who attended 11 kindergartens in a disadvantaged neighborhood, was divided into three groups:

1. teacher-instruction group (TI): 36 children who studied with the kindergarten teacher, the HIPPY materials being used as an integral part of the kindergarten curriculum;

2. home-instruction group (HI): 70 children took part in the HIPPY program at home with their mothers;

3. control group: 30 children were selected from the kindergartens of the HI group; these children were not exposed to HIPPY materials at all.

Table 1: Instructional Treatments, by Year

	Sample tested							
	1969		1970		1971		1972	
Home instruction (HI)								
First wave	48	48*	36	35	26	21	No instruction;	
Second wave			22*	22	11	10	follow-up only	
Teacher instruction (TI)								
First wave	42	42	17**	15	No instruc-		No instruction;	
Second wave			19**	11	tion; follow-		follow-up only	
					up only			
Controls (uninstructed)	30	30	30	26	30	16	30	12
Follow-up								
After 1 yr. HI			12	6	23	12	23	9
After 2 yrs. HI					10	7	21	13
After 3 yrs. HI							26	18
After 1 yr. TI			25	23	28	18	28	18
After 2 yrs. TI					17	12	17	11
Sub-total	120		161		145		145	
Lost permanently or dropped for technical reasons			12		43		49	
Total	120	120	149	138	102	96	96	81

Source: p. 40 in: Lombard, Avima, Success Begins at Home, 1981.

*70 **36

It was hypothesized that participation in HIPPY would provide children with skills and attitudes that would increase their potential for success in the early school years, and that participation in the program at home would have a greater effect than the use of the HIPPY materials in the regular preschool classes.

The three groups were tested before the program began, with predictors of scholastic achievement. This was to ensure that there

were no significant differences in achievement potential between the three groups; if differences were detected later, they could then be attributed to the impact of HIPPY.

At the end of the second year of operation, two tests were administered: the Minkovich Test of Math Readiness and the Boehm Test of Basic Concepts.

At the end of the third year, when the children were completing first grade, report card grades in reading and math were collected, and at the end of the fourth year -- a year after the program had terminated -- two tests were administered to second grade children: the Ortar-Ben Shachar Standardized Reading Comprehension Test and the Minkovich Test of Achievement in Math for Second Grade.

These measurements confirmed both hypotheses: over the years, the level of achievement on four of the six tests was significantly higher for the HI group than for either the TI or the control groups. The differences between the groups grew with each year of participation in HIPPY and continued to grow until the final testing in Grade Two.

In 1975, when HIPPY was implemented on a nationwide scale, it was considered important to reevaluate the program as a fully functioning package. The evaluation research was carried out during 1976-79.[4] The impact of HIPPY on educational achievement in Grades One and Two was studied in six communities. In each community, the experimental group was matched with a control group with respect to background characteristics. Experimental families were two-child families -- those in which the younger sibling had been a "HIPPY Child," though his older sibling had not. Control families, from the same community, were those in which neither sibling had been a "HIPPY Child." The achievement levels of experimental children was compared with those of their siblings, at the time they had been in the same grade. The intra-familial com-

parison neutralized the influence of family- and community-related variables. The same comparison was made in the control families, who were also compared with the experimental families, in order to reduce to some extent the possible influence of time-related variables.

Two types of data were collected and analyzed: normal progression through school (being promoted each year and no transfer to a special class or special kindergarten) and achievement in math and Hebrew of children in regular classrooms. The study sample included 412 children. It was found that participation in HIPPY had a positive effect on both variables studied. The degree to which an atypical progression through school was prevented was the most striking effect. In low risk families, those in which older siblings progressed through school normally, participation in HIPPY reduced the rate at which the younger child deviated from the normal educational progression by 79%. In high risk families, those in which the older sibling had not progressed through school normally, HIPPY apparently had no positive effect, but this finding was not conclusive, due to the small number of such families in the study. The positive effect of participation in HIPPY on achievement in math and Hebrew was small, but consistent. It was slightly greater in math than in Hebrew, and stronger in Grade One than in Grade Two. The researchers concluded that HIPPY has a positive effect on the scholastic achievement of children in Grades One and Two, and recommended its implementation in those communities in which school performance levels tend to be lower than the national norm.[5]

One of the central objectives of the program is to increase a mother's involvement in her role as educator. This aspect of HIPPY was studied by Davis and Kugelmass in 1974.[6] They hypothesized that HIPPY mothers would spend more time with their children than would control group mothers, and that they would spend

this time reading stories and looking at picture books; they would be more involved in working with their children on school-related tasks and would feel more positive about and more resourceful in fulfilling their role as educators. They would also have higher expectations of their children's success in Grade One. The findings showed that in the second year of the program HIPPY had an impact on the mother, but not as great a one as had been expected. There was no appreciable impact on the mother's view of herself as an educator or on her confidence in her ability to help or to find help for her child in his school activities.

Silberstein, in 1978,[7] investigated the effect of participation in HIPPY on daughters who performed as educators when the mother was illiterate and unable to assume the role of teacher. Expected changes fell into four categories: changes in child-rearing attitudes, methods or knowledge, and possibly some elements of self-image. The girls were interviewed at home and then the Fitts' Self-Concept Scale Test was administered. It was found that for two categories -- child-rearing attitudes and self-image -- no change occurred. For the other two variables, changes were found in 71% of the cases analyzed, with higher scores in the experimental group. Participation in HIPPY affected the more external categories (methods and knowledge of child-rearing), rather than the more internal ones (attitudes and self-image). Girls with a low self-image consistently favored a punishing, intrusive approach to child-rearing, attitudes which are considered detrimental to the development of children. Thus, future programs that involve tutoring within the home must seek ways of improving the self-image and change the attitudes of the girl tutors.

In 1980, Alon[8] tested Lombard's hypothesis that the program has an impact on the adult participant, as well as on the child.

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, a standardized multidimensional measure of self-concept developed by Fitts, was administered in order to determine changes in the self-concepts of mothers as a result of participation in the program. Participants' scores were compared to those of dropouts over a two-year period. This study found movement toward the highly integrated personality range with time.

In 1981, Frieder[9] studied HIPPY's influence on how husbands perceive both their wives' behavior and their own role as educators in the light of their wives' participation in the program. The basic hypothesis was that, when compared with husbands of non-HIPPY women, husbands of women participating in HIPPY would be more likely to appreciate the change in their wives' self-concept, their relationship with the child and with the school, and their participation in community activities in their spare time. It was also hypothesized that experimental husbands would score higher than control ones on aspects of father-child and father-school relationships.

It was found that mothers who participated in the program for three years displayed a better self-concept, a better relationship with their children and with the school, and participated in more activities in their free time than did control group mothers. Husbands in the experimental group, in contrast to control group husbands, perceived their wives as having a better self-concept and as taking part in more free time activities. There was no difference between the two groups with regard to the wife's relationship with the child and the school nor with regard to the husband's relationship with the child and the school.

It is evident that HIPPY is one of the most widely used programs in the realm of "educational renewal;" it has -- at the same time -- been subjected to numerous rigorous systematic studies.

Average score of the HIPPY experimental groups in school achievement tests[1]

Year	Test	RESEARCH GROUPS: Home Instruction Group	Kindergarten Teacher's Group	Group with No Special Home/Kindergarten Instruction
1971 End of Compulsory Kindergarten	Basic Concepts (Raw score)	n = 58 35.2 ± 7.6*	n = 36 29.7 ± 8.30	n = 63 32.7 ± 8.0
	Math Readiness (Raw score)	n = 58 51.5 ± 13.8	n = 26 44.8 ± 13.50	n = 63 48.3 ± 13.60
1972 End of First Grade	Class Grade in Reading	n = 37 1.41 ± 0.55	n = 18 1.39 ± 0.50	n = 45 1.58 ± 0.66
	Class Grade in Math	n = 37 1.41 ± .055**	n = 18 1.67 ± 0.69	n = 45 1.71 ± 0.70
1973 End of Second Grade	Achievement Test in Reading (Standard score)	n = 31 83.55 ± 14.62**	n = 11 74.09 ± 17.56	n = 41 75.00 ± 18.06
	Achievement Test in Math (Raw score)	n = 31 83.32 ± 30.84**	n = 11 58.91 ± 24.31	n = 41 66.15 ± 29.57

[1] Values are means ± S.D. 1 = good grade; 2 = average grade; 3 = poor grade.

* $P < 0.01$

** $P < 0.05$

Source: Lombard, A., Peiser, B., Druck, K. "Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters." Studies in Education, 23, 67-78, 1979 (in Hebrew).

Notes

1. Lombard, Avima. Success Begins at Home. Educational Foundations for Preschoolers. D.C. Heath and Company, Lexington Books, Boston, 1981, 151 pp.

2. Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY). Final Report, 1973. Dr. Avima Lombard, Project Director. The National Council of Jewish Women, Center for Research in Education of the Disadvantaged. School of Education, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem. 130 pp.

3. Lombard, Avima; Presser, Bina; and Druck, Kari. "Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters." Studies in Education, 23:67-78, 1979. (In Hebrew; summary in English).

4. This report presents a new analysis of the data collected in 1976-79 in the framework of the research that analyzed the influence of HIPPY on the academic achievements of the children who participated in it.
   Kareev, Yaakov, Silberstein, Paula, The Follow-up on Educational Achievements of HIPPY, NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, School of Education, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Interim Report No. 1, 7 p. (Basic Characteristics of Older Siblings) 1977.
   Interim Report No. 2, 20 p (Basic Characteristics of all the Research Population in Achievement Tests in Hebrew, Math and Behavior in Class-- and for a selected group in creation of concepts) 1978.
   Interim Report No. 3, 25 p., 1978.
   Interim Report No. 4, 25 p., (Advisor, Dan Davis), 1979.

5. A second analysis of partial data, carried out by Sara Lior et al., provides additional evidence of the positive effect of participation in HIPPY on the scholastic achievement of disadvantaged children. The scores of HIPPY children in the Reading Readiness Screening Test, developed by Mrs. King, were compared with those of a control group. Sixty-four children from a school in Jerusalem were divided into three groups, two of which comprised disadvantaged children from a Project Renewal community, and the third composed of middle-class children. The first group of disadvantaged children had participated in HIPPY and constituted the experimental group. The other two were control groups, one disadvantaged and the other middle class.

   Only 20% of the HIPPY children had low scores as compared with 53.3% in the disadvantaged control group. In general, the performance of HIPPY children was similar to that of the middle-class control group. Therefore, if participation in HIPPY did not ensure success in reading learning, it certainly prevented failure for more than 62% of the children who participated, thus lessening the gap between disadvantaged and middle-class children.

   1982. Lior, Sarah and Ben-Tzvi, Hod. Examination of the Results of a Reading Readiness Screening Test - with HIPPY Children. The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education. School of Education, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 5 p.

6. Davis, Dan and Kugelmass, Judith. Home Environment: The Impact of the Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY) on the Mother's Role as Educator. The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, School of Education, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 1974, 41 p.

7. Silberstein, Paula. The Effect on Tutors of Participating in HIPPY in Terms of Variables Related to Child-Rearing. Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 1978, 97 p. (M.A. Thesis) (In Hebrew; summary in English).

8. Alon, Elisa Weller. Self Concept Changes in Adult Participants of the Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY). The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 1980, 63 p. (M.A. Thesis) (In Hebrew).

9. Fr'eder, Ariel. Disadvantaged Mother's Participation in a "HIPPY" Project as a Factor in Effecting Changes in Husband-Wife Relationships and in their Relations to Herself, the Child, the School, and the Community. Bar Ilan University, 1981, (M.A. Thesis) (In Hebrew).

HATAF -- Home Activities for Toddlers and Their Families

In Israel various enrichment programs for young children have been implemented, which guide mothers on how to enrich their child's world.[2] HIPPY, for example, uses structured learning materials as the focus of activity for mothers and preschool children. From this and other programs, three main conclusions have emerged: first, home enrichment programs for children enhance their intellectual development and improve their chances for success in school;[3] second, mothers are willing to cooperate in such programs; and third, women with no professional training can be adequately trained to work as paraprofessional aides in home education programs. HATAF was based on the experience gained in HIPPY and was, in many respects, modelled after it. Initiated in 1973, the original research team that devised the program was headed by the HIPPY research team.

HATAF is currently run by a professional team at the NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education in the School of Education of the Hebrew University and is funded by the local government in each locality in which it operates.

In HATAF, as in HIPPY, mothers play a central role. In the case of HATAF, the children are between one and three years of age, toddlers, rather than of preschool age as in HIPPY. Intervention should occur early. Training in the ability to conceptualize is a prerequisite to later learning and facilitates the ability to respond to significant others.

The HATAF program has five main aims: to develop the language skills of both mother and child; to raise the mother's awareness of her child's needs at the different stages of development; to develop the mother's ability to use natural learning situations both in and out of the home; to increase the mother's awareness of the importance of giving the child encouragement and

reinforcement; to guide the mother in play techniques suitable for children in the one to three-year age-group.

HATAF is currently operating in three neighborhoods in Jerusalem,[4] as well as in Beit Shemesh, Yehud and Yavne.[5] It embraces approximately 400 families. The families chosen all have a first-born child aged from 10 to 16 months when they join the two-year program. The mothers who are chosen to participate have less than 12 years of schooling, and they are selected by the staff of the local Well-Baby Clinics in each area.

Mothers in the program are guided by paraprofessional aides who come from their neighborhood and who resemble them with respect to education and other sociocultural traits. Each aide works with 12 to 14 mothers and visits each one in her home for one hour a week. On some visits she comes equipped with a toy, a book, a puzzle or other material, and on other occasions she and the mother may adapt everyday objects, readily available in the home, for use as play materials. The aide demonstrates the use of the week's new material, goes over old material and acts as a model for the mother in her play with the child. She also brings a work sheet with written instructions to which the mother may refer. The aides undergo a course of training before they start to work with mothers. They are supervised by a professional coordinator who is a specialist in early childhood education. The aides meet once a week with the coordinator, both in a group setting and on an individual basis. The aides also receive work sheets with instructions on how to introduce the new material to the mothers and receive guidance as they work with them. The coordinator meets with the mothers every two or three weeks to discuss general issues connected with child rearing, and sometimes to make simple toys and games with them.

Since the program was first planned in 1973, it has proved flexible in adapting to the needs of the population it serves. Evaluation studies have indicated necessary changes and modifications in the program. In 1980, a small evaluation study was conducted in Beit Shemesh on a group of 22 program mothers and on a control group of 22 mothers from the same population who had not participated in the program. The mothers answered a questionnaire relating to three areas: their knowledge and opinions about educating small children, their attitudes to the educational value of the various play activities; and their understanding of the role parents play in a child's educational development. The results showed that mothers who participated in HATAF were more aware of and sensitive to the ways children develop than were the mothers in the control group; they were more aware of the educational value of the various activities in which one can participate with small children; and, finally, they more frequently saw themselves as playing an active part in their child's development and education.

More detailed and intensive evaluation research is being planned and the research tools are being tested. Among them are development tests for children in the program to measure their achievements, questionnaires on the attitudes and approach of the mothers to their children, and observations of the mothers' interaction with their children. This research is being carried out during 1982-84.

It should be added that it is extremely difficult to test achievement levels in such young children, and there are almost no available tests from studies abroad.

Notes

1. Most of the information is from "Home Guidance for Young Mothers -- HATAF Project," by Avima Lombard and Channa Nissel, January 1982, and from a conversation with Channa Nissel, National Coordinator of the HATAF Project.

2. Bernstein, B., Language and Social Class, Br. J. Sociol., 11:271-276, 1960.
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3. Gordon, J.J. Early childhood stimulation through parent education, Final Report, Institute for Development of Human Resources, University of Florida, 1969.
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Lombard, Avima, Success Begins at Home, Lexington, Mass., D.C. Heath, 1981.

4. The areas are Shmuel Hanavi, Katamon and Gilo. In Gilo, HATAF began to function very recently.

5. In Yehud and Yavne, HATAF began to function very recently.

TOY LIBRARIES FOR PARENTS

I. Description of the Program

The Toy Libraries Program is a course to acquaint parents with various educational games and to teach them how to play these games with their children. Parents participate in the course on a voluntary basis and they can borrow the games from the library to play with their children at home.

The idea of introducing toy libraries in Israel was that of Ms. Yaela Vosner who, in 1971, received support for developing it from the Psychological Educational Service of the Jerusalem Municipality. In 1974, her idea was adopted by the Department for Adult Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture. According to published material, by 1975 about 70 toy libraries had been established throughout the country and were operating in schools, kindergartens and other community institutions.[1] Toy libraries are not directed by a central authority; rather, they operate by agreement with each local authority. As a result, it is impossible to state how many toy libraries are currently in operation. It is Ms. Vosner's impression that they have proliferated.

The rationale for toy libraries for parents is based on child development studies that stress the particular importance of two findings: 1) The importance of play for the sensorimotor, cognitive, emotional and social development of children. This finding aroused a great deal of interest in the play activities of nursery-school, kindergarten and first-grade schoolchildren, and a "games class" was even suggested for these age-groups;
2) The central role played by the home and family in fostering a child's development. Research on this question established that, at a very early age, a gap already existed in the developmental level and average achievements between children from well-to-do, educated

families and those from families of low socioeconomic and educational levels.[2]

The literature on toy libraries for parents is sparse, and their goals and methods for their implementation have only been formulated in very general terms. The broad objectives are: to teach parents how to play with their children, and to use the bonds created by this learning experience between school personnel and parents as a basis for counseling parents on questions related to their children's education. The toy library concept assumes that the cognitive, emotional and social development of the children can be enhanced by changes in their parents' attitudes and behavior.[3]

In practice, most toy libraries have been run without supervision or guidance. They are, however, based on different conceptions of their aims and methods. Chief among these are: a) the toy library is viewed as an opportunity for group work with parents, and thus it is a series of treatment meetings in which a variety of questions and problems related to the family and the children's education are discussed. The games are the device for attracting the parents to the meetings;[4] b) the game is regarded as a didactic tool given to the mother so as to play at home with her children, to both advance their development and increase the level of positive interpersonal communication within the family;[5] and c) a "games class" is incorporated into the elementary school curriculum. In this case the parents are not involved.[6]

Researchers who have investigated toy libraries report that they usually consist of 8 to 10 weekly meetings of about two hours in the evening and take place in a kindergarten or on the premises of a school.

Toy libraries were intended mainly for those parents defined as "disadvantaged," but there are also some in which well-to-do parents participate. The instructor may be a psychologist, the

school teacher-guidance counselor or a teacher who has had special training as a toy library instructor. The reports published by mid-1975 indicate that some 300 individuals from all over the country had received such special training from the Ministry of Education and Culture.[7] In a few instances, toy libraries have been run by volunteers, counselors or community workers.[8]

II. A Review of Evaluation Research Findings

Two types of reports attempt to evaluate the toy libraries: the first are reports by persons who have actually run toy libraries; they express enthusiasm about the libraries, derived satisfaction from them, and considered them to be successful; the second type was evaluation research concerned with the influence the toy libraries had on those who participated.[9] The main findings were:

a) Child development. Milo tested 57 children in four religious kindergartens and nursery schools in a development town (28 in the experimental group, 18 in the control group, and 11 who dropped out). When studying the effects of participation in a toy library on children's attitudes toward their mothers and their perception of how their mothers felt about them, it was found that there was no change in either group with regard to the childrens' positive feelings toward their mothers, nor in the amount of interaction between mother and child.[10]

Tamir studied the influence of participation in a toy library on three aspects of child development: i) on their level of scholastic achievement; ii) on the child's intelligence level; and iii) on their level of emotional functioning. Forty-eight children were studied (24 in the experimental group and 24 in the control group) in two neighboring kindergartens in an area defined as "disadvantaged." The pretest revealed a general similarity between the experimental and control groups in all three aspects of

development. The posttest, however, showed higher ratings in the experimental group for all variables measured.[11]

Ben-Yishai investigated the influence of participation in toy libraries on children's ability to play, their learning achievement level, their cognitive functioning (ability to distinguish between things, matching forms, intelligence test), and their self-image. She studied 202 children (76 in the experimental group, 80 in the control group, and 46 whose mothers had dropped out of a toy library group). The subjects in the experimental groups were drawn from eight toy libraries that were regarded as successful. They included children in kindergarten or first grade in schools throughout the country.

The pretest indicated that, in most variables tested, there were no clear-cut differences between the experimental and the control groups. The most salient posttest findings were that, in the following school year, the children's ability to play the games they had learned in the toy libraries had improved, but there was no transfer to other areas of performance or learning. Thus, there was no evidence that the games had influenced cognitive functioning (Raven test) or many of the variables indicative of self-image.[12]

Noy studied the effect of participation in a toy library on childrens' cognitive development, particularly their learning ability (intelligence, visual perception, visual-motor coordination and conceptualization were measured). The entire research population attended one school; about 20% were of well-to-do families and the rest were from disadvantaged families. Forty-two first graders were tested: 15 children worked directly with the instructor (school group), the mothers of 11 others received instruction (parent group), and 16 children received no instruction at all (control group).

The pretest scores of the three groups were similar. The researcher hypothesized that the school group would receive higher scores than the parent group in the posttest, and that both experimental groups would do better than the control group. The findings indicated that both methods of intervention through play (toy libraries for parents and games lessons for children) led to higher scores in tests of intelligence, perception and conceptualization, as compared with those of the control group. At least in the short term, improvement in the school group was greater than that in the parent group.[13]

b) Influence of participation in toy libraries on mothers. The evaluation research that examined the changes in parental behavior following their participation in a toy library dealt with the following questions:

i) Changes in mothers' self-image.

Milo and Tamir tested, among other things, the influence of the toy library on the mothers' self-image. In the pretest there were no clear-cut differences between the experimental and the control groups, and it also revealed that in both groups the level of the self-image was somewhat lower than the accepted norm.[14]

In the posttest, Tamir's research showed that the experimental group mothers' self-image had increased considerably in comparison with those of the control group mothers on all scales tested, including general self-image.[15] This finding was reinforced by those of Milo, which indicated that the experimental group, in contrast to the control group, showed definite improvement in those components of self-image that were tested.[16]

These findings do not accord with those of Ben-Yishai who found no improvement in the self-image of experimental group mothers as a result of participation in a toy library.[17]

ii) Changes in mothers' attitudes and behavior

Ben-Yishai tested the toy library's influence on mothers' attitudes in the following areas: their knowledge about and attitude toward play, relations between parents and children, and relations between parents and schools. Significant differences between the groups tested were only found with regard to the enjoyment of the mothers who took part in a toy library, their greater awareness of the importance of play activity for the child, and their improved visual perception as measured by the Raven test. But participation in a toy library had no influence on the amount of time the mother (or father) played with their children. (Some mothers even stopped playing with their children altogether after a day at a toy library.) Nor was there change in the degree to which families purchased games. (Some mothers even stated that they would prefer that their children be taught how to play within the school framework.) It thus appears that the main objectives of the Toy Library Project -- that parents should understand the importance of the home -- were only partially realized.[18]

Among other things, Tamir tested the effects of participation in the toy libraries on parents' behavior toward their children during the game activities. Five elements of behavior were examined: curiosity, openness, original thought and initiative, persistence and planning, and problem solving. The findings showed similar levels of behavior in the five areas tested in both the experimental and control groups, but the level of functioning was relatively low in most areas. Participation in the toy library improved most areas of the mothers' behavior of the experimental group.[19]

iii) Mothers dropping out of toy libraries. Druck and Milo examined the dropout rate from the toy libraries. Milo's research showed that about 30% of the mothers (39 individuals) invited to participate in toy libraries, dropped out, while Druck found that 38% of the mothers (118 individuals) either didn't come to the meetings at all or dropped out. Those mothers who dropped out, in contrast to those in the experimental group, claimed that they did not enjoy the library, were bored, that the meetings were arranged at an inconvenient time, and that the instructors moved too quickly. The variations in these factors between the two groups were quite clear ($P < 0.5$).[20]

Measurement of the background variables of the dropout group made it clear, in both of these investigations, that those mothers who failed to attend a toy library, or who dropped out of one, had the lowest socioeconomic level of all the mothers who volunteered to participate.[21]

c) Assessment of the instructors' work

The instructors' role was mainly studied by Ben-Yishai. Seven instructors from a random sample of schools and six experienced instructors were questioned about the training they had received, their role within the school, their methods of work, the difficulties they face in their work, how they obtain toys, and their criteria for the success of a toy library. They reported that their training had been insufficient and that most of them would like further training and constant guidance. Most instructors were aware of the potentials of toy libraries and play training, but they appeared to have no well-defined activity plan; some even said that they lack the necessary knowledge and suitable tools for handling personal and educational problems of the participants as they arise in discussions and conversations.[22] In the research of Milo, Tamir and Noy the role of

the instructor was not studied.[23]

III. Discussion

We can thus say that the findings of evaluation research on toy libraries are somewhat inconsistent. From field observations and some research findings, it seems that participation in a toy library does influence a child's development and tightens the bond between parent and child. However, other research findings indicate the opposite. This discrepancy may be explained by the fact that some of the researchers were deeply involved in the project; they themselves ran the toy libraries or instructed the instructors. Another possible explanation is that without systematic planning in how the toy libraries would be operated, they had different objectives and were run in different ways, with the result that it is difficult to compare or evaluate their achievements.

The problems that toy libraries have encountered until now do not rule out their further development and implementation. We suggest that toy library activities be more systematically planned within the framework of the school or other educational institution. This recommendation is based on the importance of these institutions in the socialization of children and as alternative frameworks for nurturing the family, since most of the research found little if any significant change in parental attitudes and behavior in the home as the result of participation in a toy library. Furthermore, it was precisely those mothers for whom the toy libraries were intended (from the lowest socioeconomic levels), who dropped out of the program.

It also seems to us that in the planning of toy libraries, emphasis should be placed on tailoring the library to the target child (or parent) population, while offering as wide a range of toys and games as possible to expose the children to all types of learning materials (emotional, social, value-oriented, cognitive).

Comparison of averages of standard scores[1] of children in the experimental and control groups in a puzzle task (t-test)

Variable	Kindergartens						1st and 2nd Grades					
	Experimental			Control			Experimental			Control		
	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
No. of correct constructions*	17	.12	.12	15	-.24	.92	49	.22	1.0	50	-.12	1.0
No. of touches	17	.07	.64	15	-.23	1.2	49	.14**	.76	47	-.32	1.0
Efficiency of work[2]	17	-.17	.65	15	.15	1.3	49	.13	1.5	47	-.10	.28
Methodicalness of work	15	-.10	1.0	15	-.16	.97	55	.29**	1.0	55	-.15	1.1
Attention and patience	4	.15	1.7	8	.08	1.6	46	.43	1.1	43	-.02	1.1

[1] For each child the standard score was calculated in relation to his age group

[2] The lower grade is the "better."

* t-test over all the population showed a significant advantage to the experimental group $P < .05$.

** $P < .05$

Source: Druck, Ben Yishai and Lombard. See note

Comparison of averages of standard scores[1] of children in the experimental and control groups in a puzzle task (t-test)

Variable	Kindergartens						1st and 2nd Grades					
	Experimental			Control			Experimental			Control		
	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	$\bar{X}$	SD
No. of correct constructions*	17	.12	.12	15	-.24	.92	49	.22	1.0	50	-.12	1.0
No. of touches	17	.07	.84	15	-.23	1.2	49	.14**	.76	47	-.32	1.0
Efficiency of work[2]	17	-.17	.65	15	.15	1.3	49	.13	1.5	47	-.10	.28
Methodicalness of work	15	-.10	1.0	15	-.16	.97	55	.29**	1.0	55	-.15	1.1
Attention and patience	4	.15	1.7	8	.08	1.6	46	.43	1.1	43	-.02	1.1

[1] For each child the standard score was calculated in relation to his age group

[2] The lower grade is the "better."

* t-test over all the population showed a significant advantage to the experimental group $P < .05$.

** $P < .05$

Source: Druck, Ben Yishai and Lombard. See note

Notes

1. Ben-Yishai, Rachel, Evaluative Research on Toy Libraries for Parents, Jerusalem: The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, Hebrew University, 1977, p. 1 (in Hebrew).

2. Druck, Kari, Ben-Yishai, Rachel and Lombard, Avima, "An Evaluation of Toy Libraries for Parents," Megamot, 26 (3), 1981, pp. 321-338 (in Hebrew). This article is based on Ben-Yishai's research, op. cit., which includes a detailed bibliography on these researches.

3. Ibid.

4. Yosner, Yaela, In: Summary of the symposium published by the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Pedagogical Secretariat, the Committee for Elementary Education, the Committee for the Development of Toy Libraries, 12.5.75 (in Hebrew); Noy, B., The Development of Cognitive and Sensorimotor skills among Disadvantaged Children through Games . (M.A. Thesis) School of Education, The Hebrew University, Jerusalem, 1977. (In Hebrew).

5. Tamir, Adina, In: Summary of the symposium published by the Ministry of Education and Culture, Ibid.

6. See Noy, Bilha, note 4.

7. Ben-Yishai, R., op. cit.

8. Sa'ad, Zipporah, "The Toy Library and its Influence on Parent-Children Relations," Chavat Da'at, 13, 1980, pp. 72-81 (in Hebrew).

9. See Ben-Yishai, R., op. cit.; Yechezkeli, Yehudit, "The Toy Library - Care, Integration and Parental Involvement," Hed Hachinuch, 52 (14), 1978 (in Hebrew); Sa'ad, Z., op. cit.

10. Milo, Tamar, "The Effect of Toy-lending Library Program on the Self-Concept of Mothers, and the Relations of their Children Toward Them," submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the M.A. degree, Department of Psychology, Bar Ilan University, Ramat Gan, 1976.
To test the child's attitude toward his mother and his perception of her attitude toward him, a family relations test was used. See Milo, ibid., p. 50.

11. Tamir, Adina, "Games as an Enrichment Tool through the Harba-Bi Program," submitted in partial fulfillment for M.A. degree, School of Education, Bar Ilan University, Ramat Gan, 1975.
To test achievement in absorbing information, a Mehager test was used; and to test the children's levels of adaptability, a scale developed by Smilansky (1976) was used, p. 122.
For intelligence levels ($P \leq 0.001$, $F = 17.2$) and for an evaluation of the children's adaptability ($P \leq 0.001$, $F = 15.9$), conclusive differences were found in achievement levels - those of the experimental group being higher - in all variables tested and in the overall scores ($P \leq 0.001$, $F = 104.0$).

12. Ben-Yishai, R., op. cit. The tools used to test the children's development were: i) a series of individualized tests (Raven's matching test, and the Danny-Daphna test); ii) at the end of the toy library project a "putting the picture together" test was used to test the quality of the children's play and their ability to work in a planned and organized way; iii) the grades given the children by their teachers in Hebrew and arithmetic; and iv) for kindergarten children, Boehm's test for basic concepts was used to measure the children's conceptual development. For details see pp. 23-24; 147-150.

13. Noy, Bilha, "The Development of Disadvantaged Children's Cognitive and Sensorimotor Skills through Games," Chavat Da'at (10), 1979, pp. 8-23 (in Hebrew). In order to test their ability to learn, the following tests were administered before and after the program:
    i) the WAIS test (1949): Israeli version by Gina Orter (5th ed.);
    ii) the Frostig et al., test (1966) - for visual perception; and
    iii) the Boehm test (1967) to measure conceptualization at the first grade level. For details, see pp. 15, 17.

14. In Milo (op. cit., p. 46) and Tamir (op. cit., p. 126) mothers' self-image was measured by Fitt's test.

15. On the conclusive level ($p \leq 0.001$, $F = 338.2$), Tamir, ibid.

16. Milo, op. cit.

17. Ben-Yishai, op. cit.; Druck et al., op. cit.

18. To test the mothers, the Raven intelligence test was used, as well as a personal interview with them, using a questionnaire.

19. Tamir, op. cit. To test parental behavior, a parents' development report, based on observations of the parents during the play activity, was used. For details see p. 127-130.

20. See Milo, op. cit., and Druck et al., op. cit.

21. See Milo, op. cit., p. 87 and Druck et al., op. cit., p. 327.

22. Druck et al., op. cit.

23. Milo, Tamir, Noy, op. cit.

Parent-Instruction Groups in Disadvantaged Areas[1]

The project Parent-Instruction Groups in Disadvantaged Areas was carried out during the school year 1975-76 in several parts of Jerusalem: a kindergarten in Mekor Baruch, two schools in the Katamon neighborhood, the school in Shmuel Hanavi and the school in Neve Yaakov. The initiative for instituting the project was that of the Education Department of the Jerusalem Municipality. Responsibility for its implementation lay with the educational psychologists attached to the various schools and with homeroom teachers, who held between 6 and 14 bimonthly meetings with parents of the children in their respective classes.

1. The project dealt with some typical problems of parents and children from disadvantaged areas. Children from disadvantaged neighborhoods are insufficiently prepared for school when they enter first grade. In particular, they have difficulty in acquiring the basic learning skills and, as a result, their motivation to learn declines. The project calls for preventive action in order to increase the children's chances of success in school.

2. Many researchers have found a link between children's intelligence and parents' encouragement of their intellectual development. They therefore recommended teaching parents ways in which they can raise the level of their children's functioning, thus improving their chances of success at school.[2]

3. The vast majority of parents from the disadvantaged neighborhoods included in the project are not equipped with the educational skills necessary to grasp what and how their children are learning in school. Consequently, they are in a weak position when it comes to reinforcing their children's learning and to helping them make the necessary social and academic adjustments when they enter first grade.

The project had two main objectives: to increase cooperation between parents and teachers, and to provide psychological guidance for parents in matters concerning their children's educational development. Thus, in addition to their fundamental concern with the children's welfare and school success, those who mounted the project also wished to contribute something to the parents.

For the achievement of these objectives the project operated on various levels:

i. Group Discussions were conducted by two group discussion leaders, homeroom teacher and the school psychologist. The issues for discussion were chosen on the basis of the parents' needs and the problems that they themselves raised. There were two broad categories of topics for discussion: those related to the school curriculum, teaching methods and learning problems on the one hand, and those relating to the children's behavior at home, discipline problems, and parent-child relationships on the other. The aim of the group discussion sessions was to give practical guidance in all of these areas.

ii. Instruction was carried out in groups supplemented by individual guidance, with the aim of motivating parents to work creatively with their children in play and learning situations. Parents with particular or especially difficult problems that required guidance on an individual rather than on a group basis, as well as parents who found it difficult to express themselves in the group setting, were given individual counseling by the class teacher or the school psychologist.

iii. The school psychologist worked through the project to involve parents in various activities, in the hope that this would increase their level of involvement and participation in the groups. These activities included borrowing books and toys, and providing guidance to the parents in how to use them with the

children, inviting small groups of parents to visit their children's class so that they could see how the teacher worked, creative work with the parents using paper and other materials, role-playing, and so on.

The project was accompanied by exploratory research on parents' participation in the group sessions, the relationship that developed between them and the class teacher, and also any changes in their attitudes toward their children's education.

In the pilot study 95 mothers from the experimental groups were interviewed, as well as 21 mothers in a control group. The interview was based on a multiple-choice questionnaire and used the key-sort procedure to measure values.[3] The questionnaire was administered twice: at the beginning of the project and at the end of the project, six months later, and the attitudes of the control and experimental mothers were compared. The most notable changes in the experimental groups as compared with the control group were: an increase in self-confidence and a decrease in fatalistic attitudes; increased acceptance of guidance and counseling, which helped the mothers to help their children scholastically; and a greater conviction that their educational efforts influenced their children's development positively.

Experimental and control groups did not show any significant change in: the children's behavior at home; the mother's assessment of her child's intelligence and achievement levels; children's attitudes toward homework; or the children's willingness to read on their own.

It is important to point out that the researchers regarded the pilot project only as a basis for formulating hypotheses for future research. Among other things, future testing should be based on observations and should use larger control groups. The

pilot study showed that the average attendance at group discussions was about 40%.

The persistent dropout problem experienced by the television Family Situation project also occurred in this project. Mothers found it hard to attend group discussions because of problems (such as trying to get out of the house when children were at home). Another problem, which also plagued the television project, was the general failure of fathers to attend group discussions and their general lack of involvement in their children's lives.

Those involved in the pilot project believe it should be continued and expanded. Only in this way can they strengthen the positive effects achieved.

Notes

1. This is based on Moshe Forti, Parent Instruction Groups in Disadvantaged Areas. Jerusalem Municipality, Education Department, December 1976, 48 pp. (in Hebrew).

2. Clarke-Stewart, K.A. with Appel, N. "Evaluating Parental Effects on Child Development" in: L.S. Shulman (ed.), Review of Research in Education, Itasca, Ill.: F.E. Peacock, 1979.

3. This is a procedure developed by W. Stephenson in 1953 as a way of getting an objective picture of the highly subjective phenomenon - the self. P. 18 in: Richard Evans, Carl Rogers: The Man and his Idea. New York: A. Dutton Paperback, E.P. Dutton & Co., 1975, 195 pp.

KEDMA[1]

The KEDMA project (Hebrew acronym for Parent-Teacher Discussion Groups) was initiated in 1972 by Dr. Nehama Nir, director of kindergartens for the Ministry of Education and Culture, which also runs the project. In KEDMA, the kindergarten teacher (in compulsory kindergarten classes for five-year olds) meets with parents several times a year and involves them in her educational work. As in the Parent-Instruction Groups in Disadvantaged Areas project, there is a two-way flow of information between parent and teacher; the latter is also in a learning situation, having to familiarize herself with the homes and social background of the children in her kindergarten.

In her research on disadvantaged parents, Sharni underscores the importance of the professional and the parents having similar levels of power.[2] The aims of KEDMA were based on this egalitarian approach and included the goals of a) strengthening the self-image of parents of disadvantaged children and raising the value of their culture in their own eyes; b) changing their didactic activities and the values of both parents and teachers; c) changing the way in which kindergarten teachers related to their profession.

It was decided to implement the project by means of group discussions. The subjects for discussion ranged from everyday problems to reminiscences about life back in the 'Old Country'. Nir's study showed changes in both teachers and parents. The attitudes of the kindergarten teachers towards the parents noticeably altered, and they showed a greater understanding of the parents, while the parents were very satisfied with the group meetings. A new relationship developed between parents and

teachers and parents' self-image improved.

The success of KEDMA led to the creation of positions within the Ministry of Education and Culture for staffing the project.[3] Kindergarten teachers interested in participating in the project take a year-long course with about 100 hours of study. The syllabus covers the history, literature and customs of Jews of Afro-Asian origin, group dynamics, social psychology and techniques of work-shop learning.

Notes

1. The information in this section was based on Nir, Nehama, Lash, Israel, Tod, Jack, "KEDMA - Parent-Teacher Discussion Groups," Henrietta Szold Institute, Jerusalem, Research Report No. 172, Publ. No. 525, April 1973, 86 p. (in Hebrew).

2. Sharni, Shoshana, "Parents of Culturally Deprived Origin and the Attitudes of Professionals Toward Them," Henrietta Szold Institute, Jerusalem, Research Report No. 212, Publication No. 588, June 1978, 93 p. (in Hebrew).

3. In some districts, KEDMA has become an integral part of the compulsory kindergarten curriculum and it is funded by the Center for the Integration of the Oriental Jewish Heritage, together with the Department of Adult Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture.

The Program "Family Situation" as a Mass-Communications Project for Education for Parenthood[1]

The general aims of this program were "to strengthen the family in its function as an educational unit, to increase its knowledge in the field of education, and to widen its areas of influence over and responsibility for its children."[2] The specific target population was parents of young children, especially the socially disadvantaged, but since the project was shown on prime time Israeli Television, the entire country became involved. The first year, the program was directed at families with young children and the second year it was directed at families with adolescents. The program consisted of radio and television broadcasts. Thirteen programs, called "Family Situation" were telecast every other week at peak viewing times. The first part dramatized a family problem, and the problem was then discussed with a psychologist. Family Situation was also discussed on the radio program "Here at Home."

Approximately 1,000 parent discussion groups were organized throughout Israel; they met every other week and discussed the "message" of that week's "Family Situation." The Instructional Television Center organized a team of professionals to guide and advise the group leaders, trained the personnel needed to run the groups, and coordinated their implementation in the field.

Evaluation of the Family Situation Project

The Israel Institute of Applied Social Research made an evaluation of the project, probing the reactions to it of a) the general public; b) the parents of young children who participated in groups in disadvantaged areas and parents from the same areas who did not participate; c) the group leaders and the leaders' leaders, and d) education, health and welfare professionals. They also observed

the parent group discussions. Further information was gleaned from questionnaires; three areas were studied: different styles of parenting; the influence of the broadcasts on listeners; and the outcome of the discussions.

Different Styles of Parenting

The researchers investigated the degree to which disadvantaged parents were involved in the lives of their young children, and whether the parents who participated in the groups differed in this respect from those who did not. Further, what were the needs of different subgroups of parents within this target population, and whom and to what degree did the telecasts alone and the telecasts together with group discussions reach?. Good parenting was defined as nonauthoritarian, direct involvement in the life of the child. In comparison with a random sample of disadvantaged parents, it was found that those who participated in the discussion groups had a higher socioeconomic status, better patterns of parenting, and were more involved in their children's lives.

The same held true when socioeconomic status was held constant. Thus, it appears that the project's intensive program -- viewing television broadcasts and participating in discussion groups -- selectively reached those who were already "better" parents, as defined by the project. The discussion groups' main impact was probably to strengthen and legitimatize existing patterns of parenting rather than to change them. This raises the question of whether there is a self-selection process by which the weaker and more problematic strata never become the actual populations reached. However, is this weaker sector indirectly influenced favorably?

Impact of the Broadcasts

The broadcasts were found to be very popular among the general public in terms of viewing rates and enjoyment. Parents of young children with a low educational level enjoyed and identified

with the broadcasts more than did the more educated parents and those with children over six years of age. The more frequently the broadcasts were viewed, the more positive were people's reactions to them and the greater the interest in discussing the problems they presented. Since the Family Situation program is almost one of a kind, it is difficult to compare the extent of its impact with those of similar projects.

Discussion Group Participation

Discussion group participants came from the higher strata within the disadvantaged population; nonetheless, they were still on a lower socioeconomic (SES) level than the national average. Regular participants were all mothers, and the large majority of group leaders also were women. The discussions were usually based on both problems presented in the series and those raised by the participants themselves. The participants gave high ratings to the social and cognitive aspects of the group activities and lower ones to the instrumental aspects. About two-thirds of the participants claimed that their functioning as mothers had improved and that the discussions were more helpful than the broadcasts. Most of the mothers have maintained social contact with other participants since the project ended. A positive attitude toward participation was especially marked among women of Oriental origin and among women with 9 to 11 years of formal education, as compared with mothers of Western origin and with those with more or fewer years of formal education.

Positive changes in the direction of project goals were mainly in the effort to understand the child's point of view and to teach him new things (practical expressions of direct and nonauthoritarian intervention). These changes were particularly marked among the low-SES participants. Those who participated in order to improve their parenting capacities, in contrast to those who were socially motivated (about 75%), valued their participation in

the discussion groups more and also attended them more regularly.

Practical Implications of the Evaluation Research

In order for the lowest SES levels of the population to also benefit from the project, a greater effort should be made to bring them into the discussion groups. Since many are socially motivated to participate in discussion groups, the social benefits to be derived from participating should be stressed in recruiting and in planning.

Professionals in the fields of health, education and welfare should be informed about such projects and asked to seek recruits among their clientele.

Ways to increase the involvement of fathers in the discussion groups should be explored.

Television was found to be very effective in bringing the project to the attention of the general public as well as to that of the specific target populations.

Operating the discussion groups at the community level appears to have been highly successful. Groups should be homogeneous with respect to their children's ages and their SES.

The discussion groups and other aspects of the project should be better publicized.

Conclusion

While the sophisticated combination of a television series and discussion groups is a complicated and expensive project to operate, other evaluations have shown that the television component alone contributed little to the educational advancement of disadvantaged children.[3] We therefore conclude that, while television is a powerful educational tool, it has to be integrated into a comprehensive instructional framework that involves both parents and children in a variety of activities such as discussion groups and training and guidance programs.

Characteristics of Participants (%)

Characteristics	Parents who participated in discussion groups (Total absolute no.: 460)	Parents' control group (Total absolute no.: 326)
Women	93	58
Men	7 > 100	42 > 100
≤ 8 years of education	42	61
> 8 years of education	58 > 100	39 > 100
Parents of children ≤ 6 years old	22	3
Parents of children > 6 years old	78 > 100	97 > 100
Parents of ≥ 5 children	17	49
Parents of ≤ 4 children	83 > 100	51 > 100

Source: See p. 9 in Note 1.

Notes

1. This summary was based on "The Follow-up Study on the Parents Project' (The Israel Institute of Applied Social Research, 1979, 258 pages and appendices: Peled, Tsiyona; Razel, Carol; Shoham, Ilana; and Duchin, Rivka. Follow-up study of 'The Parent Project'. Final Report, June 1979).* The report, one of five about the project, also contains much additional information about specific aspects of the television series and the discussion groups. This information includes group dropout rates and reasons and motivations for participating in and leading groups, problems concerning the training of group leaders and the planning of group activities, organizational problems, criteria related to successful group functioning, etc. The other four reports submitted by the evaluation team are: a) Peled, T., Razel, C., Shoham, I. and Duchin, R. Viewing of the T.V. program 'Family Situation' - Stage I: Summary of findings from two surveys. Jerusalem, IIASR, May 1978.
b) ibid. Behavior and attitude of disadvantaged parents toward the 'Parent Project' and its topics: Interim

*A translation of the Introduction and Summary of Findings is presented in English in a separate report.

report. Jerusalem, IIASR, May 1978.

c) ibid. Feedback from leaders and leaders' leaders: Interim report. Jerusalem, IIASR, June 1978.

d) Peled, T., Duchin, R. and Shoham, I. Viewing of 'Family Situation' - Stage II, and respondents' reaction. Jerusalem, IIASR, May 1979.

2. Peled, T., Razel, C., Shoham, I. and Duchin, R. Follow-up study of 'The Parent Project'. Final Report, Jerusalem, IIASR, June 1979.

3. See p. 87 in Feschach, Norma D., Goodlad, John I., and Lombard, Avima, Early Schooling in England and in Israel. A Charles F. Kettering Foundation Program, McGraw-Hill Book Co., N. Y., 1973, 127 p.

We thank Tsiyona Peled and Carol Razel for the comments on an earlier version of this chapter.

SECTION B

CURRICULUM BASED INTERVENTION PROGRAMS

NILI

TOAM

In recent years, we witnessed the proliferation of educational enrichment and tutorial projects, and of programs directed at children's general intellectual development. These include programs that use computers, both diagnostically and for training -- MASHOV, TAPUAH, SEMEL and others (developed by various public and private organizations) -- as well as programs in the physical and social sciences and in agriculture. Some of these are being subjected to actual evaluation research in various universities.

In this section we discuss the evaluations of two projects that aim at direct intervention on the curricular level.

NILI -- INDIVIDUALIZED LEARNING EXPERIMENT[1]

Despite the fact that the Israeli educational system, as we have seen, caters to children with differing abilities and with a variety of socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds, it is based on the assumption that there is an "average pupil," uniform standards and teaching methods; curricular development is based on this assumption. Because of the varied population, a large proportion of pupils do not measure up to the achievement levels set by the educational establishment. The Individualized Learning Experiment attempts to deal with this problem by developing a learning environment that can be tailored to each pupil's needs, with particular emphasis placed on the disadvantaged student population. Through this program, a teaching method has been developed which tries to meet each individual's needs within the learning environment. It was assumed that by adapting the teaching materials and methods, and even the objectives of the program to each pupil, optimal educational results could be achieved.

The project for the Individualized Learning Experiment for disadvantaged elementary school pupils in grades one, two and three constituted a joint action research project, carried out by the School of Education of Tel Aviv University and The Center for Educational Technology (funded by the Rothschild Foundation). After its establishment, the project has been funded mainly by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

The project comprised two primary activities: 1) research and development, which were carried out in schools in Tel Aviv; and 2) experimental implementation, which was principally done in Yavne, Rehovot and Herzilya, although selected schools throughout the country also participated.

Development activities included the drawing up of learning

programs, setting up of an organizational format, and the development and procuring of equipment and resources for teaching the subjects selected. The formulation and modification of NILI's aims was an ongoing process during the development phase.

The Individualized Learning Experiment developed programs for the individualized teaching of four subjects in the first three grades: language (Hebrew), arithmetic, science and music. Language was chosen because it is a skill basic to all other learning and must be acquired early. Also, many diagnostic tools are based on language and linguistic ability. Arithmetic was chosen because of its compound structure, the systematic and orderly method of its presentation, and because it lends itself to the varying of teaching goals for different populations. Science was chosen because of its potential for cognitive development and the cultivation of important basic skills. Music was selected to represent the arts; the creative aspects of music were emphasized. Methods of diagnosis were developed together with the learning program, and they became an important element in the teaching-learning process.

The project stressed the importance of training the teachers, who were to apply the individualized teaching methods in the classroom, in the didactic reasoning derived from the underlying principles of the individualized approach. The training allowed the teachers to gain experience in the activities they would be implementing, and this enabled them to discover these principles for themselves. Attention was also paid to the organization of the physical environment during training; a model design of classrooms was presented, and the trainees examined how the physical organization of the learning environment can contribute to the teaching-learning process.

In addition to project development, a comprehensive system

for evaluation and follow-up was set up to check and assess the effectiveness of the various components of the experiment and to examine its achievements for purposes of feedback, decision-making, and modification. All follow-up studies were carried out by the project personnel. External evaluation, therefore, would be most welcome.

The evaluation research took place over a three-year period. In the 1975-76 school year, 34 first and second grade classes (22 experimental and 12 control), with about 1,900 pupils, were studied. In that year the research team concentrated mainly on developing assessment procedures and in establishing a model for both overall and segmental evaluation of the learning process and cognitive functions. In 1977-78, the study population comprised 68 first, second and third grade classes (39 experimental and 29 control), with about 2,000 pupils. In this year, the pupils' cognitive and social processes and functions were tested, their achievements in the four abovementioned subjects were measured, observations were made on the general school atmosphere, and attitude questionnaires on the teaching approach and how it was implemented were administered to all those involved in the program.

In 1978-79, the research data gathered in 1977-78 was processed, and a first interim report on the three-year experiment was presented. We have been informed that the final analysis of the data is under way, but is not yet available to us.

Notes

1. The information on this project was based on: NILI -- Individualized Learning for Pupils Defined as Disadvantaged, 1975, The Center for Educational Technology, School of Education, Tel Aviv University (in Hebrew).

   An Individualized Approach to a Language Program System -- 1979 Summary Report. The Center for Educational Technology, Tel Aviv; School of Education, Tel Aviv University (in Hebrew).

   Teacher Training for the NILI Project, 1979 Summary Report, The Center for Educational Technology, Tel Aviv; School of Education, Tel Aviv University (in Hebrew).

   Hen, D. Individualized Learning Experiment, 1975-79, Action Report. The Center for Educational Technology, Tel Aviv; School of Education, Tel Aviv University (in Hebrew).

The TOAM Program

TOAM (the Hebrew acronym for Practice and Diagnosis through Computers), a program operating in several schools in Israel, helps pupils to acquire basic skills in arithmetic and provides teachers with continuous feedback on their pupils' progress. Computer-Aided Instruction (CAI) is still in its infancy and has hardly tapped the great potential offered by computer technology.[1] CAI enables pupils to work both individually and independently and to receive immediate feedback, which in turn increases their motivation to learn. At the same time, their teachers have a clear picture of their progress and can focus on any problem a pupil may have at the time it arises. Understandably, the more capable pupils progress more rapidly.

TOAM is administered by the Center for Educational Technology, which was established by the Rothschild Foundation. During the 1981-82 school year, about 16,000 pupils in grades two through six studied arithmetic with TOAM.[2] The program was first introduced in 1977 in Netivot and has been expanding gradually, mainly in development towns. During the 1981-82 school year, pupils from two special education schools (in Netivot and Ashdod) also participated in the program, and it was introduced in the middle of the school year into three other schools that provide individualized learning.

In each of the schools where TOAM operates, there is a central computer with 16 or 32 terminals. In schools in which the teacher faces the class in the traditional manner, the terminals are located in one room, and the pupils work with them for two 20-minute periods twice or three times a week. In schools with individualized learning programs, there are a few terminals in each classroom so that the pupils have easy access to them.

The computer provides the teacher with a weekly progress report on each pupil, and, at the end of the school year, there is a final report on each one's achievements.

The computerized exercises are programmed according to the standard level a pupil should reach during each school grade, as established by the Ministry of Education and Culture. This standard is 10 units each year; thus, the pupil is expected to complete 40 units by the third grade, 50 units by the fourth grade, and so on. Table 1 shows the required standard for each school year and the actual progress of pupils in Netivot.

Table 1: Progress over Three Years in Netivot

Date \ Grade	2	3	4	5	6
6.77 without earlier experience	22.4	27.8	31.3	35.8*	--
29.6.78	25.7	30.5	37.3	41.3	44.6
20.6.79	27.7	32.3	41.0	46.7	52.9
26.6.80	27.2	36.7	42.3	53.1	59.0
Aim	30	40	50	60	70
(Required level according to the teaching program of the Ministry of Education and Culture)					

*The initial level in the first year of the implementation was equivalent to the required level for the middle of the third grade.

(Source: Osin, March 1981, p. 15)

According to Osin's later report,[3] since TOAM's introduction in Netivot in 1977, pupils working with the system have made constant progress. Achievement over several years can also be studied in schools where the program has been running for four years, and the results are similar to those in Netivot.[4] The

findings for the country at large, including all grades, are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Nationwide Results with TOAM

Grade	2 (n=3010)	3 (n=3750)	4 (n=3527)	5 (n=3106)	6 (n=2478)	Total no. of pupils (from regular grades) (n=15871)
Level at the beginning of 1981-82 school year	20.8	26.7	33.9	41.4	47.3	
Level at the end of 1981-82 school year	29.4	36.8	43.5	51.7	58.5	
Progress during the year	8.6	10.2	9.6	10.3	11.2	9.94 Average annual progress

(Source: Osin, 1982, p. 10)

Before the implementation of TOAM, pupils achieved only 42% of the Ministry of Education and Culture's requirement annually. According to the findings with TOAM, 99% of that requirement is fulfilled.[5]

As a result of TOAM's success in teaching arithmetic in primary schools, there are plans to utilize it further in teaching subjects such as Hebrew language and writing, and English.

Notes

1. Peles, Yona, Computers in Education - 1982, The Center for Educational Technology, Tel Aviv, 1982, 35 p., p. 3 (in Hebrew).
2. Osin, Louis, Teaching with Computers - The TOAM System, Publication No. 7, The Center for Educational Technology, 1981, 22 p., p. 15 (in Hebrew).
3. Report on Pupils' Achievements in TOAM in the School Year 1981-82. The Center for Educational Technology, Tel Aviv, 1982, 9 p.
4. Ibid., p. 5.
5. Ibid., p. 6.

SECTION C

SCHOOL RELATED ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS

YULA (Extended Study Day) and YOCHAI (Extended School Day)

THE SUPPORT SYSTEM

TUTORIAL PROJECTS

Until now, educators and behavioral scientists have not been able to specify with any certainty to what degree these programs can develop the potentials of students who participate in them, especially those students we regard as disadvantaged. Educational failure of disadvantaged children not only affects the children themselves, but constitutes a social problem of great concern. Thus, the unfulfilled expectations of the educational system on the one hand, and many children's lack of appropriate skills, intellectual capacities, behaviors and attitudes required for their formal education on the other, generally gives rise to a situation with which the school must find ways to cope.

It is within this framework that the educational programs presented in this chapter should be considered. As with other educational efforts, these programs try to respond to the needs of students who have difficulty in complying with the demands of the educational system, demands that increase each year and sometimes create a situation in which students feel totally unable to continue with their studies. The response of the educational system to such a state of affairs is, among others, to mount programs such as school-based extracurricular activities such as YULA and YOCHAI, or through rallying efforts of professional educators, e.g., the Support System that, together with community representatives, try to encourage and support individual and group initiative at all levels.

Without doubt there are other educational programs with similar goals to those mentioned here, that view the school as the focal point for action, but they have not been evaluated nor have they drawn public interest as the ones discussed here.

Extended Study Day (YULA)
and
Extended School Day (YOCHAI)

The "Extended Study Day" (YULA) and the "Extended School Day" (YOCHAI) are two programs usually implemented in schools that cater to disadvantaged populations.[1] The aims of these programs are to enhance the pupils' cognitive, affective and social functioning, to raise their achievement levels and, hopefully, in this way to increase their chances for successful integration into society. These programs take place after the regular school day and allow elementary school pupils to devote extra time to academic subjects as well as to the arts.[2]

The programs are run by a special committee of the Ministry of Education and Culture in cooperation with local authorities, but their implementation is carried out by the school principal, teachers and professional counselors. The target population is elementary school pupils, mainly from disadvantaged families, although in integrated schools these programs include all pupils, some of whom may not be defined as disadvantaged. Despite the similarities between the YULA and YOCHAI programs, some of their aims and emphases differ. We describe briefly each program and its evaluation.

YULA. This program has been in operation for some 20 years, and focuses on the development of cognitive functioning.[3] Two-thirds of the time is devoted to additional study of the academic subjects pursued during normal school hours.[4] Particular emphasis is placed on those subjects with which disadvantaged pupils tend to have difficulty. The remaining one-third of the time is devoted to peer group and to enrichment activities.

The first evaluation of YULA was undertaken when the program had already been in operation for some time. The study was carried out by Glickstein and Yam in 1966. They concentrated on the organizational aspects of implementing the program as reported by school principals and on the administrative problems involved in allocating the extra hours. A sample of 144 schools in which YULA was implemented was examined, compared with a sample of schools with only regular study hours. In YULA schools (about 40% of which were State-religious schools), it was found that the additional hours were not fully utilized and that the allocation of time between academic and recreational activities greatly deviated from the directives given, particularly when allocation of time for study was concerned.[5] The principals indicated that the additional study hours and guided homework were the most effective activities, and the most frequently cited goal was to raise the achievement levels of those pupils whose levels were low.[6] Gutman, Ashni and Lash investigated the YULA program for two years (1964-65) in an attempt to assess its influence on achievement rates, social interaction and the pupil's self image.[7] They tested a sample of 1,246 children from 37 4th and 5th grade classes. Of these, 821 pupils (23 classes) were in a YULA program and 443 (14 classes) comprised the control group. The researchers distinguished four types of YULA programs: 1) an academic type, with additional study hours; 2) a social type, with additional hours not devoted to study; 3) a regular type that used conventional frontal teaching methods; and 4) an irregular type, with nonfrontal teaching methods. The outcomes of each type were then compared with those of the control group.[8]

At the beginning and end of the 4th grade and at the end of the 5th grade year, a series of achievement tests, as well as self-image and sociometric and attitude questionnaires were administered. The teachers and school principals also filled out

an attitude questionnaire. The findings were ambiguous: the 4th grade pupils in YULA did better than those in the control group in certain areas of achievement, but this rate of achievement did not carry over into the 5th grade. There was a similar trend when the YULA subgroups were compared with the control group.

Further, it was found that the YULA program had no effect on self-image: the differences in self-image between the YULA (experimental) group and the control group were not statistically significant, and that there was more improvement in the control group.

In the area of social relations, it was found that the YULA program fostered a greater degree of peer solidarity than that in the control group; these differences remained statistically significant to the end of the 5th grade year.[9]

YOCHAI Mosadi* differs from other educational programs designed to extend the school day in its emphasis on group activities (music, dance, drawing, drama and physical education). This is to create a balance between the academic curriculum and nonacademic activities, and to turn the elementary school -- as the pioneers of the program expressed it -- into an "educational institution rather than merely a teaching institution.[10]

In 1973, on the basis of the YULA experience, the Director General of the Ministry of Education and Culture appointed a 19-member committee to plan the YOCHAI Mosadi. The committee selected 40 schools to test the program. It was also decided to institute a two-year follow-up program from the outset of the experiment. Three members of the committee were asked to draft the goals of the program, which were basic and in-depth study of regular school subjects, study of values (and, in State-religious schools, studies of religious obligations), cultural enrichment

*Mosadi means institutional in Hebrew, to differentiate from YOCHAI Yishuvi, discussed later in this chapter.

and broadened horizons, nurturing of personal relationships and social life, motivation of those pupils whose homes were not educationally oriented, and to aid working mothers in the afternoon hours. It was decided that each school principal should be responsible for the planning and the execution of the informal activities of the YOCHAI Mosadi program within the framework of his own institution. Those implementing the program could obviously make use of resources outside the school itself to make the project even more effective, including youth clubs, museums, and sports facilities.

Eighty percent of the 40 schools chosen for implementing and evaluating the YOCHAI Mosadi program had a large proportion of disadvantaged pupils, while 20% of the schools had a low proportion; the latter served as a basis for comparing the attitudes and achievement levels of the pupils. The experiment was conducted between 1974 and 1977. The actual content of the informal activities depended on manpower, in light of the shortage of professional personnel and the limitations on providing additional training for the teachers and counselors who had to carry out the program. An evaluation study was launched from the outset. The educators themselves researched the problems involved in implementing the program, so that counseling could be given immediately when necessary. Constant monitoring of the program allowed for flexibility in adapting activities to fit the needs of the pupils as they became clear.

The evaluation research was performed by the Henrietta Szold Institute of the National Institute for Research in the Behavioral Sciences in 1974-75. School principals, supervisors, and education department heads were interviewed while the program

was in progress. As it drew to a close, the initial interview was replicated in order to compare before-and-after attitudes.[11] Questionnaires were administered to teachers, principals, pupils (from 3rd grade on) and their parents, in order to see what they thought of the YOCHAI Mosadi program. In 1975-76, the pupils, parents and teachers of all the schools that had taken part in YOCHAI Mosadi were administered another questionnaire. Principals, supervisors, education department heads and area directors were reinterviewed. The questions probed a range of issues connected with the program, from a definition of program goals to the degree of satisfaction derived from it.

The researchers concluded that responses to questionnaires administered at the end of the 1975-76 YOCHAI Mosadi experiment indicate that, for those involved in the program (principals, implementors and participants) the program changes the atmosphere in the school, increases pupil interest in informal activities, increases scholastic achievement, and enhances social interaction between pupils in parallel classes at the same grade level.

From the point of view of administration, it was found that the program allowed principals great flexibility both in how time was allocated and in choosing the group activities. From the principals' responses, it was clear that there were a number of conditions that are essential if the program is to run smoothly, chief of which are qualified manpower and an adequate budget. The principals and teachers also criticized the physical conditions prevailing in the schools and the inadequacy of funding and equipment. At the same time, they praised the program's ability to enrich the pupils and to broaden their horizons, while intensifying their involvement in classroom activities. The parents were pleased with the program and were positively influenced by the children's feelings toward the program, a finding based on a comparison of responses to the questionnaires administered to

parents and to children. The various groups involved in the experiment seemed quite satisfied that the program had achieved its aims.

It is important to note that no systematic research on the influence and consequences of the YOCHAI Mosadi program (such as that carried out by Gutman, Ashni and Lash for the YULA program) has been undertaken. If, in the 1970s, a few simple tests had been carried out in the area of scholastic achievement, and if the pupils and parents had been asked a few questions regarding their attitudes toward the project, it would have been possible to profit from the results of the project, either by comparing the pupils' achievements in the 1980s with those of the 1970s, or by comparing them with those of a control group.

On the basis of the conclusions based on this study, it was decided to introduce YOCHAI Mosadi as a five day a week compulsory program with the school itself deciding on how to organize the activities according to the needs of the local population, the available staff and the prevailing physical conditions. No research has been carried out to determine whether the YOCHAI Mosadi program effected any changes within the school itself, or if it influenced the community at large in any way.

In 1977-78 and 1978-79, the Ministry of Education and Culture decided to arrange a follow-up experiment in one or two settlements in which the YOCHAI Mosadi would be implemented in all the elementary schools in the area.[12] As with YOCHAI Mosadi, the goal of the Local Extended School Day Program (YOCHAI Yishuvi*) was defined as the integration of an informal program of social education with formal learning activities.

The children spent more time in school in this program.

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*In this context, the Hebrew word Yishuvi means "local."

It was supported by the Ministry of Education and Culture, the National Insurance Institute, and the Department of Salaried Women in the Histadrut (General Federation of Labor). The difference between YULA and YOCHAI Mosadi centers on the choice of which primary schools would take part in the experiment, and this was reflected in the findings. The similarities between them were mostly in the areas of subject matter and the organization of the different activities.

Following this experiment, it was decided that the YOCHAI Yishuvi would be a compulsory five-day-a-week program in 1976-77 and 1977-78 in the towns of Lod and Afula. Twenty-one schools took part in the experiment (12 State-secular schools, 7 State-religious schools and 2 Arab schools), with the participation of 9,100 pupils in the 1st to the 8th grades.

An evaluation study, similar to the one mentioned above, was carried out. It was found that both teachers and principals pointed out difficulties in implementing the project: the extra work load without suitable financial compensation (particularly for the teachers); an inadequate budget for equipment; poor physical conditions that gave rise to crowded classrooms, etc. However, the teachers and principals did state that the program contributed to the pupils' general enrichment and broadening of horizons, the development of their personal capacities and improvement of their self-image. It should be noted that the cross-section of the YOCHAI Yishuvi's population is not representative of other cities and towns in Israel.

There are similarities between the YOCHAI Mosadi and the YOCHAI Yishuvi in the content of the group activities and how they were organized; the researchers noted that the differences between the programs had to do with the choice of which primary schools would participate in the experiment.

The evaluation led to the recommendation that the YOCHAI program be implemented in all schools on a nationwide basis, despite the problems of inadequate manpower and budget; it was suggested that the parents of pupils in control schools be asked to participate in financing the project.

Notes

1. Schools are designated as "disadvantaged" if more than 50% of the pupils are defined as "disadvantaged" according to the criteria of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

2. It should be noted that the regular school day in Israeli schools is short. In the lowest grades, the children spend 4 to 5 hours in school (until 1:00 P.M. at the latest). In the higher grades, where the school day is longer, children generally leave school by 2:00 or 3:00 P.M. at the latest.

3. Glickstein and Yam, The Implementation of the Extended Study Day in Disadvantaged Schools. Henrietta Szold Institute, Jerusalem, June 1966, Part A, 65 pp. (in Hebrew).

4. See p. 1-5, p. 54, ibid. In 1960-61, in Israel, it was decided to implement the YULA program in a limited experimental framework encompassing only three schools. In 1961-62, the project was expanded to include 250 classes, in 1962-63, 500 classes and in 1968-69, at which time the evaluation research was concluded, 1,537 classes in 256 schools were included in the program.

5. See p. 6, ibid. The average number of hours of the YULA program according to the distribution of these hours between "learning" and "non-learning" activities, according to the type of settlement and the status of the school. Research Report (Stage I), No. 113, Publication No. 457, Henrietta Szold Institute, Jerusalem, 1966 (in Hebrew).

6. The material on which this paragraph is based was taken from a special questionnaire which was administerd to 144 school principals in which the YOCHAI Mosadi was implemented. The attitude questionnaire in point dealt mainly with two types

of problems: those relating to disadvantaged schools and those of schools in which the YULA program was implemented. In the second type, the YULA program was stressed as an instrument to provide a solution to the problems of disadvantaged pupils (p. 8, p. 54, Research Report (Stage I), Part A, Glickstein, N. and Yam, Y.).

7. See p. 20 in: Gutman, Ashni and Lash, The Extended Study Day (The Influence of the Addition of Teaching Hours on Learning Achievement, Personality and Social Relations). Research Report No. 151, Publication No. 501, October 1972. Henrietta Szold Institute, Jerusalem 102 pp. (in Hebrew).

8. One type of Extended Study Day (YULA) is prevalent in all schools. The researchers point out that, at the beginning of the research, the schools were randomly chosen for preparation of sub-types of Extended Study Day (YULA). The schools did not function according to the research requests, and each principal carried out the program as he thought fit. Ibid., p. 97.

9. Ibid., p. 53.

10. P. 4 in: Burg, B., The Institutional Extended School Day (YOCHAI Mosadi) Experiment in 1973-1976. Research Report No. 207, Publication No. 577, Henrietta Szold Institute, Jerusalem, March 1978, 172 pp. (in Hebrew).

11. P. 84 in: Burg's Research Report. In 1974-75 82 principals and supervisors were interviewed and in 1975-76 990 pupils and 804 parents answered the questionnaire (p. 102, ibid.). In 1976-77 4,878 3rd-8th grade pupils answered the questionnaire out of a total of 7,720 pupils in the 3rd-8th grades, and 4,352 parents. 56% (p. 117).

12. See p. iii-vi in: Burg, B., The Local Extended School Day (YOCHAI Yishuvi) Experiment in 1976-1978. Research Report No. 209, Part B, Publication No. 584, Henrietta Szold Institute, Jerusalem, December 1978, 140 pp. (in Hebrew).

THE SUPPORT SYSTEM[1]

The Support System: a project for the development of independent community initiatives in the operation of educational programs

The Support System was the name given to a school-based support project operated by a team of educators and behavioral scientists from 1976-78 in the development towns of Kfar Yona, Or Yehuda and Kiryat Malachi. The team's goal was to develop a viable local educational system in these areas. The initiator of the project proposed to the Ministry of Education and Culture that it be established on an experimental basis, with the aim of fostering local initiatives in rehabilitation and development, rather than implementing programs initiated by the central government. The project was planned and directed by personnel from the School of Education of Tel Aviv University, the Educational Welfare Program of the Ministry of Education and Culture and the local authorities of Or Yehuda, Kfar Yona and Kiryat Malachi. The Educational Welfare Program guaranteed that the project would operate for three years. It was monitored through periodic reports, and two anthropological studies were carried out.[2] Some of the material is relevant to this report, although no overall systematic and formal evaluation of the project has yet been done. There has, however, been a study that puts forth guidelines for evaluation research and systematically analyzes a number of characteristics of the Support System.[3] These characteristics can serve as the basis of any evaluation study that may be undertaken in the future.

The aim of the Support System was to counsel people connected with educational institutions how to deal systematically with their problems by defining goals, identifying problems, and assessing the probable efficacy of possible courses of action.

The Support System team found that this way of dealing with problems created greater community involvement in the running of local services. Citizens displayed more initiative and were more involved in their planning and execution, and they employed available resources more efficiently. This approach fostered a significant degree of community autonomy. (Non-educational areas, such as employment or mental health, were not included.)

The project's aim was not only to help communities deal with their own problems, but also to set up a model of interaction between university staff and field workers that would improve the functioning of local educational systems. In the first year of operation, the team was composed of teachers and researchers from the School of Education of Tel Aviv University. In the second and third years, some of these experts left the team and were replaced by people experienced in community and educational work. Experts were also called upon to plan the program in areas with which the project staff was not familiar. The approach of the project's initiators was pragmatic, so they felt free to alter the intermediate aims and methods of operation of the Support System to meet the needs of the specific community as they emerged and became clear. However, certain program activities were carried out in all of the settings. In each case an effort was made to help school staff to master problem-solving techniques, so that the school might become a more adaptive and independent unit.[4] No single model was put forward as appropriate for every context. In each case, the project had to adapt itself to the unique situation prevailing in the particular community. Within the framework of the program, team members were active in two main areas: counseling and intervention.

Areas of Counseling

1. Counseling services were made available to political leaders and professionals who collaborated in establishing the community's educational policy.[5] In one of the communities, a local steering committee was set up, comprising key political leaders, the head of the municipal government, school principals, the directors of local social services, representatives of the central government (mainly inspectors) and representatives of the Support System project. Together, they planned both formal and informal educational programs. In another community, counseling services were made available to the local steering committee of the Educational Welfare Program of the Ministry of Education and Culture in developing strategies for the allocation of resources and in the establishment of follow-up procedures.[6]

2. Counseling for school principals in developing educational policy. Representatives of the Support System acted as counselors to teams of school principals, teachers and educational counselors who wanted to effect changes in the attitudes of teachers and pupils and in the organization and administration of their schools.[7]

3. Evaluation. Evaluation consisted of achievement tests administered to all those involved in the project and anthropological surveys.[8] The Support System also fostered the awareness of local leaders of development towns of the need for basing further development activities on the findings of systematic follow-up and evaluation of existing activities.

4. Counseling was provided for the establishment and operation of new services, such as community centers and tutorial programs.[9]

5. There was counseling and support in organizing community events, such as local festivals.[10]

Areas of Intervention

1. There was active participation in the establishment of facilities and services, such as an educational psychology service,[11] and group activities for mothers and teachers.[12]

2. Teachers received guidance in developing their ability to think didactically.[13]

The Support System project worked with the key local figures, both political and administrative, in each of the three small towns. Project staff also worked with mothers, with groups in need of counseling and with teachers, who were given guidance on common didactic problems. Before the project went into operation, the local communities and their educational services had had difficulty in recruiting qualified personnel for this kind of work.

The project staff was chary of intervening too much, since they did not wish to encourage the very dependence on external authorities that they were hoping to reduce. Accordingly, the boundaries of the project were never rigidly established. Also, the question of whether the team's function lay mainly in counseling or in intervention was left open, and ad hoc decisions were made in each case.

Although there is no evaluation research on this project, we decided to include it in our survey because of the importance of the issue with which it dealt: demonstrating problem-solving techniques to those who work in formal and informal educational settings, so as to increase their chances of achieving their goals and learn to alter and adapt their educational system to meet local needs.

The Support System experiment is an interesting example of the fostering of local initiative in rehabilitation and development, and it has made a considerable contribution to the educa-

tional systems of the three development towns where it functioned that have carried beyond the three-year period the project operated. However, the fact that the project was discontinued raises important questions:

(1) Is it possible that its success in the three small towns was due to its novelty and to the resulting enthusiasm of the particular people involved?

(2) Why have there been no calls for the continuation of the project, either from the development towns themselves or from the Ministry of Education and Culture?

(3) It is also important to know whether the cessation of the Support System led to a return to the level of operation and state of affairs that prevailed in the three communities concerned prior to the operation of the Support System.

These questions must be considered before the Support System is again put into operation.

Notes

1. All the information in this survey was based on an anthology of documents, papers and a survey which appear in Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., The Support System: An Attempt at Developing Community Educational Systems, 1979, Tel Aviv, 189 p.

2. See two Lewis' papers, notes 8 and 10.

3. Nevo, David, "The Evaluation in the Support System Project" in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 62-84.

4. Smilansky, M. and Sanders, D., "The Support System. A Way of Developing Educational Institutions" in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 11-28.

5. Kashti, Y., "Developing Community Educational Policy through Directed Intervention" in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 29-47.

6. "The Activities of the Support System in the Autumn of 1976 and Guidelines for its Evaluation in the Future." Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 85-107.

7. Discussion of Multiple Meaning of the Counselor's Role as "Counselor" and as "Intervenor" in: Arieli, M., "The Role of the Team Members in the Support System," in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 48-61.

8. Lewis, A., "The Beginning of the Support System's Intervention in Kfar Yona," in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p.108-124.

9. Ibid.

10. Lewis, A., "The Yoniada - Social Experimentation and Innovation," in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 147-159.

11. Gampal, Y., "The Educational Psychological Service and Community Intervention - The History of the Setting-up of and Educational Psychological Service in a Development Town," in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 172-181.

12. Gampal, Y., "The Dynamics of Mothers' Groups in a Development Town," in; Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 160-171.

13. Lewis, A., "The Beginning of the Intervention in Kfar Yona," in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 108-124.

11. Gampal, Y., "The Educational Psychological Service and Community Intervention - The History of the Setting-up of and Educational Psychological Service in a Development Town," in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 172-181.

12. Gampal, Y., "The Dynamics of Mothers' Groups in a Development Town," in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 160-171.

13. Lewis, A., "The Beginning of the Intervention in Kfar Yona," in: Kashti, Y. and Arieli, M., op. cit., p. 108-124.

TUTORIAL PROJECTS

With the aim of reaching as many disadvantaged pupils as possible on an individual level, emphasis was placed on tutoring by nonprofessional tutors. There is growing recognition that nonprofessional people can perhaps generate better achievements than professionals. Funding and manpower shortages can also be partially solved by using nonprofessional people.

There are two main aspects to the tutorial programs: to enrich the disadvantaged pupil in his studies and support him psychosocially (self concept, relationship with parents and friends, etc.); to enrich the tutor and especially to raise his self-awareness and social involvement.

The tutorial programs differ from each other in several dimensions: the age of the tutees and the age of the tutors, the type of training which the tutors receive, different types of activities which they do, and the degree of supervision of the project.

I. UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AS TUTORS

PERACH

PERACH is a one-to-one tutorial project in which university students throughout Israel tutor disadvantaged elementary and junior high school students in return for a partial tuition scholarship. The idea underlying this program is that the tutors provide role models that will motivate the children to make an effort to succeed in school and will begin to realize their potential.[1,2] The major emphasis of the project is academic.

By "academic" we mean not only teaching the child in the strict sense of the word, but to motivate him and to change his attitude toward learning and self-improvement. It is hoped that greater scholastic achievement, as well as a more positive sense

of self, will provide the child with the necessary tools and will imbue him with the desire to remain in school and to work to become a productive member of society.

PERACH was implemented after a two-year pilot study (1972-74) at The Weizmann Institute of Science in Rehovot, during which about 50 university students and faculty worked with disadvantaged children on a volunteer basis. The following year, about 70 university students worked with children from the communities of Beit Shemesh and Yavne. Their impressions of the progress made by these children were extremely encouraging. Therefore, in 1976-77, PERACH expanded and went into operation in all universities. During that year, 900 university students acted as tutors. In 1977-78, about 2,200 students participated in the project, and in 1978-79 the number of tutor-child pairs reached approximately 3,000. The projected goal is 10,000 children and tutors.

Since its inception, the basic philosophy and operating procedures of PERACH have remained fairly constant, despite the fact that the project is still being developed.

PERACH operates through the school system. Criteria for selecting schools are: 1) classification by the Ministry of Education as having a large number of socially disadvantaged pupils; 2) a willingness to participate in PERACH; and 3) relative proximity to a university or easy accessibility to the tutors.

PERACH is designed to work with the top one-third of the children in Grades 5 through 9 in disadvantaged schools who, in the opinion of their teachers and school counselors, are at least of average intelligence and could benefit from tutoring. A special effort is made to concentrate on preadolescents, for it is felt that it is these age-groups that can benefit most from tutoring.[3]

Teachers are asked to fill out an assessment form for each child they recommend for PERACH. The form assesses the child's

ability, achievement, motivation, and family background. With this information, and in consultation with school principals and counselors, a list of suitable candidates for tutoring is compiled. The children are also interviewed, either at school or in their homes. Thus, children are selected on both the basis of the teacher's assessment and on the impression obtained of the child and his home environment through the interviews.

According to the PERACH ideology, any university student can become a tutor. No special training or background is necessary; the student merely has to express an interest in helping a disadvantaged child. Nevertheless, potential tutors are interviewed so as to assess their motives for participation and to filter out those who appear unsuitable. A student who is selected then signs a contract stating that, if he meets his tutee a minimum of twice a week for two hour sessions throughout the school year, he will receive a partial rebate on his university tuition fee.

Several factors are considered when matching the children with the tutors: they should not live too far from each other; they should generally be of the same sex, because tutors are meant to serve as role models; children from religious homes are matched with religious tutors, and Arab children with Arab tutors. Other than the formal requirement that the tutor and the child meet twice a week, there are no specific demands with respect to the content, format or locale of the tutoring sessions. In some cases, the tutor may study with the child, in others he may concentrate on affective problems the child may have, and occasionally a tutor may decide to broaden the child's horizons by taking him to museums, concerts, or reading the newspaper with him.

Tutors receive only minimal guidance. Once a month, the tutors meet as a group with their coordinators and discuss their activities. During these meetings, the coordinators often arrange for the attendance of an outside expert who can discuss problems of common concern

and provide the tutors with guidance on individual problems. At most universities, professors from the Departments of Education, Psychology, and Social Work have made their services available to the tutors. In addition, libraries and toy rooms have been organized at each center, in order to provide the tutors with educational materials and ideas for the tutoring sessions.

PERACH is structured as a hierarchy, in which a central administrative body directs the activities of local project directors at the seven universities involved. Each local director, sometimes aided by an assistant director, is responsible for 7 to 25 coordinators, each of whom in turn supervises the activities of approximately 30 to 50 tutors operating in one or two schools. Workers at all levels other than the central administrative body are university students.

Evaluation:

An evaluation study carried out in 1977-79 by Eisenberg, Fresko, and Carmeli showed that the project has met with only limited success.[1] Findings indicated that tutored children did not appear to be progressing faster than those not tutored in cognitive achievement (as measured by standardized tests of reading comprehension, mathematics, and English as a foreign language). However, the tutored children did exhibit greater satisfaction in school, felt they were participating more in class, and were reading more than were their non tutored peers (there had been no pretest).

In the area of self-concept (according to the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale), there were no noteworthy changes among PERACH children. Similarly, attitudes toward society and ethnic groups were only slightly affected by participation in the project. While PERACH children tended to display more positive behavior on school-related and academic variables, non-PERACH children scored higher on variables in the social domain: they felt more popular

among their classmates, and often expressed greater patriotism, ethnic-group loyalty or a more positive family self-concept. Nevertheless, a relatively high level of satisfaction with the project was reported by all those involved in it.

A follow-up study was carried out by the same investigators to determine if PERACH had some delayed effects.[4] The main purpose of the study was to locate PERACH children two years after they had been tutored to assess their school status, to measure their own view of their academic progress, their aspirations and attitudes toward school, and their feelings about their "PERACH experience" in retrospect. Comparisons were made with a control group who resembled PERACH children with respect to background variables, but who had not been tutored. The findings showed that PERACH children, especially the girls, continued to report doing their homework more regularly than those in the control group. Even in retrospect the PERACH children evaluated the tutoring experience positively, but any differences that had existed between PERACH and non-PERACH children at the end of the tutoring activity, with regard to self-reports on classroom participation and satisfaction in school, seemed to disappear after two years. However, regarding delayed effects, it appears that PERACH children, as compared with control children, had higher educational and occupational aspirations, mentioned doing better in academic than in vocational or nonacademic subjects more often, and more frequently were to be found at the academic level "where they are supposed to be."

According to Eisenberg, Fresko and Carmeli, "These differences probably derive from the fact that the methodologies employed in the two studies differed."[5] The authors contend that some of the effects that vanished two years after the end of tutoring could have been prevented by: a) extending the tutoring to two years; b) providing the tutors with more guidance; and c) including even younger children in its target population (from Grades 3 and 4).

Hypotheses a) and c) have been tested on a small scale, evaluated, and the data published in an interim report. Data from Grades 3 and 6 show that tutoring has an effect on children in the cognitive realm at both grade levels. In the affective area, results are less clearcut. Sociometric measurements did not indicate any improvement in social acceptance for the PERACH children. In addition, apparently there is no effect on the children's self-concept in either grade.

Finally, Eisenberg et al.[6] focused their research on tutors. One of the central goals of PERACH is to reach as many disadvantaged school schildren as possible, but it has been difficult to recruit enough tutors from the universities due to their lack of time, the pressure of studies, and family obligations. Since the chances for increasing the number of tutors from the universities appear to be limited -- although more could be recruited -- PERACH would like to tap other sources, such as teacher colleges and yeshivas. The feeling that recruitment from among these groups is a natural extension of PERACH prevails.

During the 1979-80 school year, recruitment in 18 teachers' colleges and 2 yeshivas began on a trial basis, and 425 tutors were found. These tutors worked in the same way as the others. A study was done to evaluate the operation of the tutoring project in the teachers' colleges and yeshivas. The report focused on the organization and operation of the project and the level of tutor satisfaction in the various settings. The findings show that the tutors from the teachers' colleges and yeshivas, as compared with the PERACH tutors from universities, tended to meet with the school staff more often, and less often reported difficulty in meeting with their children. They were more satisfied with their work as tutors and were more inclined to feel that they had effected changes in the children. From all indications, the experiment to utilize tutors from yeshivas and teachers' colleges has been successful.

THE STANDARD PROGRAM

During the years 1980-82, Davis, of the NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, analyzed the difficulties in evaluating educational programs in schools and proposed strategy for eliminating or reducing these difficulties. "Such a strategy focuses its efforts on programs with relatively clearcut goals and operating procedures. Instead of asking how well the program works in general, it first asks how well the program can work, and attempts to answer this question in a tight experimental framework. The results can be viewed as a standard against which future evaluation results in normal field settings can be compared."[7]

After a review of the research literature, a standard program for individualized tutoring and support of disadvantaged children was drawn up and implemented during 1980-82.[8] The main feature of the program is a supervisory and guidance structure that is sensitive to the problems encountered by the tutors and that can help to solve them. In addition, the program is flexible and can be adapted to meet the needs of each tutor-tutee relationship.

The program is structured as an undergraduate course in the School of Education at the Hebrew University, and the students receive a scholarship amounting to half of their tuition and credit for the course. In 1980-81, the program included 47 tutors and 30 in 1981-82. Each student works with one child in Grades 4 and 5 for two hours at least twice a week. Each tutor receives one hour per week of individual guidance with a supervisor experienced in the field of individual tutoring. Group discussions and lectures take place within a class setting. As part of the course requirements, each student prepares detailed descriptions of the meetings with his child. On the basis of research and theory, the project, in the opinion of the researchers, is a reasonable

approximation of optimal individualized tutoring. Therefore, the estimates of its effects may serve as standards for evaluations of other programs. This experimental program is being compared with the nationwide tutoring program, PERACH, in which there is minimal guidance and supervision.[7]

According to researcher's report, the results indicate that the effect of tutoring on achievement is much greater if guidance is emphasized than if it is not. In addition, the program in which tutors receive no guidance did not raise the tutees' level of achievement as compared with control group children in the same class. Up-to-date findings will be published soon.

OTHER EXPERIENCES IN TUTORING

While Davis' experiment concentrated on scholastic achievements, the goal of Osterweil and Feingold's course was the prevention of mental illness.[9]

Osterweil and Feingold report on a tutorial program in the form of a year-long course in "Psychological Guidance for Deprived Children"; the course was given at the Hebrew University for three years (1975-78).

Approximately five groups of 3 to 5 students worked with groups of 8 to 10 children from schools in disadvantaged neighborhoods in Jerusalem over an eight-month period. Activities included games, trips, drama, and discussions. The student leaders received intensive, ongoing supervision both in weekly classes and in their working groups. In review discussions and written reports, the students reported on both psychological changes within themselves and on the psychological status of the children with whom they worked.

II. HIGH SCHOOL TUTORS

Some projects have used high school pupils as tutors. Sprinzak[10] evaluated the results of the tutorial program operated by the Ministry of Education. The tutors were selected from among ninth graders whose achievements in English, Hebrew and math were good, and who were ready to become tutors. Tutors from Afro-Asian disadvantaged families received preference. There were 153 tutors in all, and they received one of two types of guidance: either a three-week course during the summer, or a three-day course at the beginning of the school year.

The research focused on how the program influenced: a) the scholastic achievement of both tutors and tutees; b) such variables as attitudes toward school and tutoring, their self-concept, and locus of control.

The instruments used for evaluating the tutors, the tutees and their control groups were: math tests, English tests, report card grades in English, Hebrew and math, a questionnaire on social and personal background, Rotter's Internal-External Scale, Levin's Self-Concept Questionnaire, Levin's Perception of Learning Problems Questionnaire, additional questions about aspirations with respect to their future occupation, whether they wished to take the matriculation exams, and attitude questionnaires.

The effect of the tutoring program was studied by both objective measurements and subjective reports. The objective measurements showed that there was no significant difference between the tutors and their control group. However, tutors who had participated in the summer course scored higher on the English test and on their attitude toward school than the tutors who had participated in the three-day course.

The tutees scored better than did the control group in English and in their grades for math. In the math test however,

no influence was found, nor was there any effect in the socio-personal sphere.

The self-reports indicated satisfaction with the program on the part of both tutors and tutees. Tutors reported a noticeable improvement in the socio-personal sphere and tutees in their scholastic achievement level.

In another evaluation of a program using high school tutors, Paynton[11] reported a study carried out in Romema (Jerusalem), in which 24 high school tutors (Grades 9 to 11) helped elementary school children (Grades 1 to 3) to adapt to the formal educational system and provided them with positive role models. With respect to the tutors, the goal was to strengthen their motivation to complete their studies and to bolster their faith in their own ability to cope with the social and educational demands imposed upon them. They received a symbolic payment for their work. The tutor-tutee meetings took place twice a week for 2 to 3 hours. The tutors received guidance from social workers and specialists, who were invited to the group meetings. The researcher used teachers' evaluations of the children's behavior at school, tutors' reports, questionnaires and sociometric tests. The coordinators reported a positive effect (but with weak statistical significance) on 75% of the children, a medium effect on 10% and little effect on 15% (particularly in the area of self-concept). Nevertheless, the program was unable to change the tutees' tendency to be passive. A positive effect on tutors was found with respect to their performance as tutors, satisfaction with their work and increased social integration in their neighborhoods.

III. ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TUTORS

Other projects have worked with elementary school tutors. Prinz[12] studied the effect of one such project on the tutees. One hundred and one fifth grade pupils received help on a one-to-one basis from seventh graders in an experimental research tutorial program, conducted in six elementary schools in Jerusalem, over a six-month period during the academic year 1976-77. The meetings included both study and leisure-time activities, such as hiking or walking tours, games and active sports, free conversation, watching movies or TV. Over 50% of the tutees dropped out at various stages, and it was found that: a) the tutees who did not drop out initially scored higher than did the dropouts on measures of school achievement (mainly in Hebrew and Bible), motivation to improve their school achievement and confidence in their ability to do so, self discipline, obedience in school and liking for the teachers; b) their relationships with their teachers and friends significantly improved, as did their sense of responsibility, persistence, activity level, taking responsibility for their own failures, belief in the fairness of the grading system, and attitudes toward school in general. According to Prinz, the program did not, however, contribute to scholastic achievement. In some cases, scholastic performance even deteriorated, due perhaps to insufficient guidance given to the tutors, or their inability to cope with scholastic problems; and c) those who dropped out at the very beginning showed improvement in scholastic achievement and had more self-confidence, but their attitudes toward school deteriorated.

Granot[13] reported satisfaction on the part of tutors participating in a similar program that aimed to help children adapt to new schools. The affective and social bonds between tutors and tutees apparently exceeded the basic requirements of the tutor-tutee relationship.

The overall results obtained by the several tutorial programs are mixed. In a review of evaluation studies of tutoring in Israel (which included some of the projects discussed here) Davis et al. showed that programs with little guidance did not affect achievement, while those with strong guidance and supervision did affect achievement.

Notes

1. Eisenberg, T., Fresko, B., and Carmeli, M., A Tutorial Project for Disadvantaged Children. An evaluation of the PERACH project. The Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, 1980. 257 p.
2. Carmeli, M., The PERACH Project, Society and Welfare, 1980, p. 457-465. (in Hebrew).
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4. Eisenberg, T., Fresko, B., and Carmeli, M., A Follow-up Study on PERACH Children Two Years after Tutoring, The Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, 1982, 68 p.
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SECTION D

INTENSIVE INTERVENTION PROGRAMS

MANOF

KEDMA

RESIDENTIAL CENTERS

The power of intensive educational care is obviously considerable, especially when the target population comprises society's weaker groups -- the disadvantaged. As we have seen in a previous section, Israel is probably unique in the degree to which it focuses on the family with, hopefully, meaningful interventions. At the same time, however, even if such interventions would yield major success, there is bound to be a certain number of children with no family or with families who cannot be rehabilitated. It is here that residential care should be applied. The educational projects described here are a case in point, projects such as KEDMA, MANOF and Residential Educational Centers. These are long-term programs aimed at the preparation and social integration of youths who deviate from society's norms and are deficient in learning and social skills, have behavior problems and lack self-esteem. If significant change in these areas can be accomplished, the social functioning of these youths will be greatly enhanced.

MANOF

"Disattached" youth (i.e., unaffiliated with any social institution) aged 15 to 17, are the target population of an experimental program called MANOF -- the Hebrew acronym for RESIDENTIAL CENTER FOR YOUTH. Established in 1975, the annual intake has grown from 30 youths in the early years of the program, to a current figure of 90 per year. The program operates in Nahariya, so far with boys only.

MANOF is an autonomous association which is financed by the Ministry of Education and Culture, Yad Hanadiv Fund (The Rothschild Foundation), the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, and the Children and Youth Aliyah Department of the Jewish Agency. MANOF was initiated by the Youth Department of the Ministry of Education and Culture and the NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education in the School of Education at The Hebrew University of Jerusalem. The Director of the Institute has been the Chairman of the MANOF association since its establishment.

The founders of MANOF sought to establish an institution which youth would join of their own free will. They decided on an informal educational approach, as they assumed that the former negative experiences of the youngsters in formal school settings would render a formal educational approach ineffective in this case.

MANOF's educational program is based on endowing disattached youth with the basic resources necessary for reintegration into society. Accordingly, the program includes vocational training, academic studies, and enrichment courses aimed at widening the youth's horizons. During 8 months studies are pursued in a relaxed atmosphere, without fear of punishment selection or failure. The only starting point in each field is the level of knowledge and skill attained by each youth. (There are thus many levels at MANOF, including that of teaching at times the basic skills of reading and writing.)

However, imparting knowledge and skills are by no means the essence of the MANOF program. The most telling experience lies in the interaction and in the involvement with other students and with the staff, which participation in the program entails. The educational focus of MANOF is on the deep bonds which are created between the youths themselves, on the one hand, and between them and their counselors on the other. Within this framework opportunity is created for all youths to regain their faith in adults and also to reaffirm their belief in themselves.

MANOF activities are carried out in an environment which allows for experimentation with different adult roles, and this is particularly pertinent to the boys' participation in the executive committees of the institution. As committee members, the youths have a chance to express themselves and to perform a meaningful role with a good chance of succeeding in it (and not to be punished for failure). This is especially important in the light of the history of these youths: generally, the first stages of their disattachment from society was brought about by their inability to cope with the roles that they were assigned and the fact that they had no opportunity to assume any alternative roles, especially as pupils in school.

During the second stage of the project, the youngsters go to a kibbutz for at least three months and usually until their recruitment into the Israeli army. The kibbutz, as opposed to the residential center, is a natural environment, albeit a relatively sheltered one. In the kibbutz, the youths have a further opportunity to experiment with and succeed in the performance of a variety of roles.

A comparative study of MANOF and KEDMA[2] has been carried out but full results are not as yet available. The first stage of the research lasted one year, from 1980-81, and comprised a full year's

systematic observations of all aspects of both project's program.

In the second -- and current -- stage which began in the autumn of 1981, the researcher is preparing material in order to compare the behavior and functioning of MANOF graduates with that of youths who have graduated from similar institutions and organizations, for example, street corner groups, closed institutions, vocational boarding schools and so on. The behavior and functioning of the youths to be compared relates to their army service.

The army has indeed already offered evaluative information about MANOF (in 1980). The army data file supplied MANOF with information about the functioning of its graduates within the army. This information concerned both MANOF graduates who were carrying out compulsory service at the time of the survey and those who had by then already completed their army service. The army data file information compared the functioning of the MANOF graduates to the functioning of all other soldiers of similar backgrounds and personal profiles. The level of functioning of MANOF graduates was significantly higher than that of the others. For example, only 6% of MANOF graduates dropped out of or were expelled from the army and more than 60% performed in meaningful military roles.

A further test of the effectiveness of MANOF emerged from a change in the program which was introduced two years ago. It was decided to include an academic program within the MANOF curriculum, designed to prepare suitable MANOF graduates for participation as regular students in the university's one-year pre-academic preparatory programs. In the first year (1981-82) 7 MANOF graduates participated in the preparatory year program and 3 reached within one year the standard necessary to begin their undergraduate studies. A further 13 MANOF graduates enrolled in the preparatory year program at the beginning of the current (1982-83) academic year.

An important principle of MANOF is that, although it is basically a short, albeit intensive, educational experience, there is a comprehensive follow-up system for all its graduates. Help and guidance is being offered to them for as long as they need it, and special care is taken to retain contact with graduates who have particular problems. At the present time MANOF is in touch with over 200 of its graduates.

Notes

1. Gottlieb, A. The Rehabilitation of Disattached Youth in Residential Frameworks. Stage A, MANOF and KEDMA. The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, 1983, 119 p.

2. See chapter on KEDMA.

KEDMA[1]

The youth village, KEDMA, built on the remains of an abandoned kibbutz of the same name, is an education program which fuses the kibbutz characteristics of a youth village and a residential school. This physical setting and the social organization both constitute one important difference between KEDMA and MANOF. KEDMA has been operating since April 1980. It takes in alienated and severly neglected youth between 14 and 16 years of age for whom there are no alternative rehabilitative or educational facilities. Until now only one group has finished a period in this youth village.

It mainly is funded in 1979 by the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare and Kibbutz Hatzerim. Kibbutz Hatzerim has also contributed greatly to the establishment, the funding and the direction of the project, most of the gains from their factory going toward the funding of KEDMA. Kibbutz Hatzerim, therefore, plays a role in KEDMA similar to that of the "Yad Hanadiv" (Rothschild Foundation) in MANOF.

The physical plant provides living accommodations for the youth and staff, a dining room, classrooms, a club room, metal and carpentry workshops, a garage, and agricultural land for cultivation. There are 60 youth in KEDMA (both boys and girls). Youngsters are referred to KEDMA by the Probation Service (25%), various community service groups (30%), truancy officers (13%), the Service for Girls in Distress (8%), and others; the majority are in fact referred by the Probation Service and the Service for Girls in Distress. Most of the youth come from the southern area in which KEDMA is located, very few coming from places north of Tel Aviv. The youth remain at KEDMA for 3 to 4 years, until they are recruited into the Israeli army. As in MANOF, drug abuse and delinquency do not disqualify youngsters from KEDMA. Thus, the

KEDMA youth resemble those of MANOF on a number of traits, except that they are about one-and-a-half years younger, on the average, and the KEDMA program is coeducational.

KEDMA's educational program can be divided into formal learning activities and structured social activities. The formal activities include: a) Academic studies in the KEDMA school. In KEDMA, as in MANOF, schooling encounters many difficulties due to the lack of suitable teaching aids and books for adolescents who essentially have no formal education, problems related to the exigencies of a regular formal education, and the little knowledge which does exist of didactics and teaching methods for such youngsters must be adapted to their needs and abilities; b) Vocational training for the boys in metalwork, as garage mechanics, in agriculture and carpentry, and for the girls, in hairdressing, sewing and computer punch card machines; c) Regular duties in the dining room, the kitchen and in agriculture in which the staff also participates.

The structured social activities include: a) group activities and discussions; b) voluntary extracurricular activities; and c) activities in which the entire youth village participates, such as Shabbat observance and parties on the various holidays.

The model for integrating educational activities, work and vocational training is multidimensional and is applied intensively in action and in educational communication. This involves the educational input offered to each youth, the exclusion of no one, demonstration of the work, promotion and encouragement when the youth succeeds, the absence of punishment, permissiveness to failure, acceptance of youth as they are, and integration into the program at their particular level.

The staff of the youth village includes counselors, academic teachers, an educational coordinator, a supervisor of the counselors, a coordinator of the extracurricular activities and department coordinators, in addition to social workers and admini-

strative staff.

In spite of the systematic training of the staff for this project (which lasted six months and took place mainly in the village itself), there have naturally been changes in administrative procedures and educational techniques. Even the underlying doctrine underwent adaptations since the program has been running. Some of these changes are:[4] a) placement in social groups by age, rather than by time of arrival in the village; b) each age-group is now stratified into two or three levels — for academic studies -- according to objective test results (instead of the previous random division); c) some of the vocational training has been formalized and the pupil now receives a certificate upon completion of the course.

Some of the main characteristics of KEDMA are

A) Its structure is similar to that of a kibbutz -- in its physical setting, in its ecological environment, and in its social organization, which is based on cooperation. Yet, being an educational institution, it resembles youth villages as well.

B) KEDMA is physically and functionally removed from the town environment. This distance reduces the pressures of temptation, and limits the contact with law enforcement agencies such as the police. It creates a protective environment for rehabilitation, which is very different from the youngster's home experiences.

C) In spite of the emphasis placed on educational group activities in KEDMA, strong social ties, which include the whole village, naturally develop. From this point of view, the experience acquired in KEDMA, with a population of 60 youths and 40 staff members, living together in daily contact, can have important implications for other programs.

KEDMA and MANOF, which are both aimed at the resocialization of alienated, delinquent and extremely undereducated youth, are still in the experimental stage. MANOF preceded KEDMA by about

5 years and had a considerable impact on how KEDMA's philosophy and practice was formulated (including the attempt to improve upon MANOF). The projects use many elements: full-time, long-term residence in a protected environment; a diversity of educational experiences (so that each participant may succeed in at least one role or activity); making the educational peer group central to the educational operation of the institutions (to allow for mutual support and a sense of belonging); and the presence of a diverse group of young adults (counselors, instructors or social workers), who not only serve as role models, but also offer each youth the opportunity to form a close relationship with at least one authority figure who is accepting, encouraging, trusting and devoting lots of time to him (experience which most of these youths have never had before). It seems that this rather unique mixture of elements has a great potential for generating a powerful process for resocialization.

It therefore seems to us that these programs and perhaps other similar ones can be highly recommended as an approach to "renewal," although Project Renewal seems not to have recognized this so far: certain aspects of a community's renewal can only be performed out of the community. There is no theoretical basis for the prevailing assumption that weak communities in need of renewal can efficiently use the institutional, cultural, moral and educational resources needed to contribute to the resocialization of its most alienated youth. Project Renewal should therefore, in our humble opinion, most certainly become deeply involved in funding, promoting and developing residential facilities such as those described here, and commission studies of their effectiveness (including in terms of youths' possible return to their communities of origin).

Notes

1. Gottlieb, A., The Rehabilitation of Disattached Youth in Residential Frameworks, Stage A, MANOF, The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, 1983, 119 p.

RESIDENTIAL EDUCATION CENTERS

About 20% of all students in Israel over 14 years of age study in residential education centers; this is certainly the highest percentage of residential educational care in the [illegible] world.[1] Young boys and girls live in these centers for a number of years, in varying degrees of isolation from their home communities and social environments. The ecological-organizational character of the residential center offers an opportunity to change both attitudes and behavior.[2]

There are many arguments for and against the idea of youngsters growing up, studying and working in places away from their homes and families. Those who support this idea believe that a community in the process of being rehabilitated -- at times a very complex process -- cannot provide the social resources needed to raise the educational level of its most disadvantaged groups to that of the larger society. Furthermore, the community itself may have ambivalent, or even hostile attitudes toward these weak or deviant elements. This is due to the fact that these groups stigmatize the community on the one hand, and on the other, great investments of money and effort are called for if these youngsters are to be integrated into the mainstream of society. Removing these youngsters from their home communities and exposing them to new educational stimuli can not only accelerate the process of their rehabilitation, but it can also facilitate the rehabilitation of the communities they leave.

Thus we included a section about residential care, although Project Renewal is generally not involved in this educational enterprise.

The residential educational setting has been part of the Jewish

tradition for many generations (i.e., yeshivot for religious study) and, with the rise of modern Zionism, this tradition was adapted to serve the ideology of return to both the land and to physical work by establishing agricultural training schools and residential schooling in conjunction with the communal setting of the kibbutz. Since World War II, residential centers have absorbed children and youths who were Holocaust survivors, immigrants from Asian and African countries, and the children of new immigrants. In more recent years, they have mainly served disadvantaged children from the urban centers, development towns and agricultural settlements.[3]

The popularity of residential educational settings in Israel can be viewed historically as the response of a people migrating "home." It was an attempt to structure the new society along egalitarian lines, rather than perpetuating the social structure of the Diaspora. Finally, it was a powerful educational tool during an era of nation building and the social revolution that was Zionism. Under such conditions, residential education was a powerful institution contributing to the rapid transmission of identification of the family with the newly emerging social order.

Other less general and more practical reasons for the widespread resort to residential education was the pressing need to create a highly trained work force to build the new economy.[4]

Youth Aliyah* is the educational subsystem most intimately associated with and responsible for residential education, which, in the years following the foundation of the State, showed an extraordinary ability to transform and adapt to new social and educational conditions. During the Mandate period, residential centers played

*"Aliyah" is the Hebrew word for immigration.

a significant role in the emergence and education of an elite, (mainly adolescent pioneers) and of children who immigrated to Israel, usually without their parents, in the 1930s and 1940s. As early as the 1950s Youth Aliyah started changing into an instrument for the social absorption of immigrant children (whose parents had as a rule also immigrated to Israel). In the 1960s and 1970s, efforts were thus launched to adapt residential education to the educational needs of the weaker groups and even of disassociated youth. We wish to suggest that residential education today is a very important resource for achieving social renewal (i.e., Project Renewal).

The Mechinot (preparatory) Program

The Jewish Agency provides a learning and educational framework for Youth Aliyah for youth with severe learning problems, and the Youth Training Program, in which young people either elect to go or are sent to study on kibbutzim (communal settlements), are examples of Israel's answer to the problem of rehabilitating and reintegrating school dropouts through residential education.[5] The youngsters studying in these centers vary greatly in terms of socioeconomic status and learning achievement, but the target population is currently mainly from severely disadvantaged, albeit diverse environments.

Research on the functioning of residential centers for disadvantaged youth indicates the effectiveness of these centers in their impact on pupils' behavior and the improvements of their scholastic achievement.[6] Most explanations of the success of residential centers made by researchers emphasize structural and organizational aspects of the educational programs and the psychological changes in the pupil that can be attributed to the change of environment.[7] Evaluation studies of these centers in the last

decade show that their pupils' level of achievement is higher than that of day school pupils of similar backgrounds. Parents also tend to evaluate the residential centers in positive terms, except in those cases when the institution, or certain components of it, do not function smoothly on a day-to-day basis, or when its norms are not consonant with those of the parents. The parents' evaluations are essentially based on practical questions: are their children acquiring a useful skill or trade, or are their patterns of behavior changing?[8]

Appelbaum and Meir[9] found that parents who send an adolescent child to a residential educational center usually express a certain hopelessness; they seem to feel that they themselves have somehow failed and cannot help their child to gain the necessary skills to make one's way in life.

Many social workers, educational counselors and administrators tend to see the placement of a youngster in a residential center as a solution of family problems and of its offspring's deviant behavior.

The pupils themselves tend to evaluate the residential center in a relatively positive way; their initial attitude is one of verbal conformity to the center's standards. On the one hand, they try to remain emotionally distant and uncommitted to the institution, and on the other, their evaluation of such things as their studies, peer and class groups is positive; but they tend to evaluate the counselors, housemothers and the residential centers themselves negatively.[10]

Rapaport, Kimor and Mano,[11] researchers of the Szold Institute who were not involved in the implementation of the project, investigated the influence of residential centers of Youth Aliyah on disadvantaged pupils who took part in the "Israeli Project." This project was aimed at several strata of disadvantaged adolescents from cities and small towns.

The findings of this evaluation study are of interest. After performing a pilot study and developing a protocol and the research instrument, 3,800 pupils studying in 42 educational institutions in 1974 were contacted. Of these, approximately 2,500 were in 123 classes in 31 residential educational centers run by Youth Aliyah, and about 1,300 were enrolled in 47 classes in 11 day schools; the latter formed the control group. All the pupils were about to enter the 9th grade, and they were given three general types of achievement, motivation and personality tests. Their progress and change was recorded for two school years, from the beginning of the 9th grade to the end of the 10th. Since the study population was extremely diverse (including pupils in youth villages, residential centers, "Mechinot" or preparatory institutions, youth centers and the control group in day schools), the investigators secured information on their socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds with a questionnaire.

It was found that Youth Aliyah assumed responsibility for the most problem-ridden youth in the country: the percentage of pupils from broken homes under their egis was almost double that in the control group; in youth centers it was two-and-a-half times greater, and in preparatory institutions it was three times that in the control group. It should be noted that the researchers could not find a control group that matched the Youth Aliyah population on the background variables.[12]

The findings show that the pupils made progress in mathematics, comprehension of written material, and they scored higher on intelligence tests in three groups: in residential centers, in youth villages and in the Mechinot. The most marked progress was made by the pupils of the Mechinot. The researchers assumed that the selection procedures for the preparatory program were very good and, although the pupils displayed low achievement levels

initially, they had the potential ability to reach normal levels, in contrast to pupils in the youth centers, which have no selection procedures at all.

The pupils were studied in terms of academic and employment aspirations, external and internal motivation,[13] and fear of examinations.[14]

The academic level of aspiration of youth center pupils was low in comparison to that of pupils in the other groups, but they (together with the control group pupils) had higher levels of aspiration with regard to employment than did the pupils in boarding schools and in the preparatory program.[15] The internal motivation of preparatory program pupils dropped, while that of pupils in the youth centers rose. (See Table 1)

Personality variables were measured by a locus of control test and a self-image test.[16] The results showed some movement inward of locus of control and a slight improvement in self-image, although they did not reach the norm for the general population.

In conclusion, it can be stated that the most salient findings of this research on residential education -- which examined the effects of only two years in the Youth Aliyah program, and only some of the variables that influence and are influenced by education -- are the centers' achievements in the areas of academic motivation, motivation for employment, and personality development.

Despite research that points out the substantial achievements of residential education in working with a relatively problematic population, these centers also have their critics. Kashti[17] claims that residential education centers only serve to further isolate this disadvantaged population from the mainstream of Israeli society. Further, he maintains that residential education centers create a hierarchy within the educational system and act as agents to recruit

members into the lower strata of the social system. He concludes that, if the task of residential education is to give special care to the disadvantaged, to encourage their emotional and cognitive development, and to create opportunities for their social and cultural integration into the larger society, the residential education program must be reevaluated in view of its potentially negative effects.

Also at issue with regard to the pros and cons of residential education is the question of removing children from their homes, especially preadolescents. Both children and youths find it difficult to be cut off from their homes, families and friends, and this is one factor that contributes to their dropping out of the residential centers. Of course, many youngsters are sent to residential education centers precisely because they have dropped out of regular schools and are already alienated; however, the procedures for establishing the candidates' suitability for the institution in which they enroll or to which they are sent, are still inadequate.[18] The rates of irregular attendance and dropping out are higher in residential education centers than in any other type of institution administered and directed by the Ministry of Education and Culture.[19] Criticisms of the residential education centers, as educational institutions per se, are accompanied by criticism directed at those responsible for this type of educational setting.

However, given social conditions that create groups of youngsters whose basic needs are not met by existing conventional institutions, then the social system itself is at least partly to blame for the educational failure of these youngsters.

It is worthwhile to comment on the criticism which is levelled at some parts of residential education, namely, the high dropout levels. While the facts cannot be refuted, it must be

remembered that in many residential education centers the pupil population consists of those who have dropped out, that is to say, a population which finds it difficult to adapt to the way of life, rhythm and norms of any educational institution. In addition, the registration systems for residential education are not sufficiently sophisticated or sensitive. Although these centers differ in their educational aims and/or in their target population, admission to residential education is not based on an examination. A valuable instrument in the education of youth from weaker groups is not fully exploited as a result of these limitations.

A different research perspective has been suggested by investigators such as Bidwell[21] and Kahane[22] who try to classify residential education centers according to their structural characteristics and interactional processes. Bidwell's schema sees residential education centers as "administered communities," with communal links and contractual legitimation.

Kahane presents a model, or "ideal type," in sociological terms, for the analysis of residential education centers.[23] His model entails a coding system for both the institution's behavior and that of the individuals within it.[24] He creates a number of paradigms of residential education centers, different types of residential institutions will be characterized by different combinations of paradigms.[24]

Possibly, these conceptual frameworks will facilitate our understanding of the educational process in residential education centers, so that it will then be possible to link this process to the different outcomes.

In conclusion, despite the fact that about 20% of Israeli secondary school students study in residential education centers, the data that we have presented here (although some research may have escaped our attention) is meager and disappointing. If we remember that the residential education centers absorb many youth

of disadvantaged backgrounds, with essentially weak educational experiences, then the need to know and to understand the process of residential education becomes even more urgent.

Table 1

Initial averages in occupational aspiration in different frameworks

Frameworks	Initial score[1]	Change (average progress)
Residential centers	3.6	-0.1
Control group	3.5	0.4*
Mechinot	2.8	-0.25
Youth centers	2.1	0.89**

[1] Scaled from low motivation (1) to high motivation (5).

* The difference between frameworks was significant at the $P < 0.05$ level.

** The difference between initial and final scores was significant at the $P < 0.05$ level.

Need for external motivation

	Initial score[2]	Change (average progress)
Residential centers	2.1	0.1
Control group	1.9*	0.4*
Mechinot	2.1	-0.03
Youth centers	2.0	0.3**

[2] Scaled from not important (1) to very important (4).

* The difference between frameworks was significant at the $P < 0.05$ level.

** The difference between initial and final scores was significant at the $P < 0.05$ level.

Degree of internal motivation

	Initial score[2]	Change (average progress)
Residential centers	3.4	-0.05
Control group	3.4	-0.6*
Mechinot	3.2	0.06
Youth centers		0.44**

* The difference between frameworks was significant at the P 0.05 level.

** The difference between initial and final scores was significant at the $P < 0.05$ level.

Source: See Note 11

Notes

1. Report of the Committee for Education and Care Alternatives for Youths who have Dropped Out of Educational and Vocational Training Frameworks, Chairman: Chaim Adler, Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, 1980, p. 113.
2. Kashti, Y., "Residential Education Centers for the Disadvantaged. A Reassessment." In: The Disadvantaged and Residential Education Centers. Shraga Adiel (Ed.), Tel Aviv, Zerikover, 1980, 351 p.
3. Report of Committee for Education and Care Alternatives, op. cit., pp. 116-122.
4. Kashti, Y., op. cit., p. 255.
5. Report of Committee for Education and Care Alternatives, op. cit.
6. Wolins, M., "Deprived Children in a Youth Village," Yesodot, 1975, pp. 27-40.
7. Feuerstein, R., "The Redevelopment of the Socio-Culturally Disadvantaged Adolescent in Group Care," In: Wolins, M. and Gottesman, M. (Eds.), Group Care: An Approach. New York, Gordon and Breach, 1971, pp. 232-234.
8. Kashti, Y., op. cit.
9. Appelbaum, D., Meier M., Placement of Children in Residential Education Centers, 1976.
10. Kashti, Y., op. cit.
11. Rapaport, C., Rimor, M., Mano, C., "The Influence of Educational Frameworks of Disadvantaged Pupils," In: The Disadvantaged and Residential Education Centers, op. cit. This chapter is based on their survey and their research findings on the first two years

(9th and 10th grades) of residential education. The authors point out that this is an interim report.

12. The pupils chosen for the control group were taken from the Ministry of Education and Culture list of schools for disadvantaged pupils. Their degree of disadvantage (a measure composed of father's ethnic origin, his educational level, and the number of children in the family) was matched to that of the experimental group of Youth Aliyah. In spite of this matching, the researchers claimed that the experimental group comprised such severely disadvantaged youth that a matched control group could not be found.

13. The pupils were asked about the characteristics of the work they would prefer when they become employed. There were differences between the degrees to which their motivation came from within or was externally induced and a preference was expressed for enjoyable work that would also constitute a learning experience.

14. The researchers hypothesized that repeated academic failures cause the disadvantaged pupil to become apathetic and to stop caring about academic achievement. They regarded the extent to which pupils feared examinations as an additional indicator of the success or failure of the educational system. We do not agree that this indicator is useful in such an evaluation. It is possible that the apathetic pupil simply doesn't care about examinations one way or the other, while a highly motivated pupil may be afraid of examinations because their outcome is meaningful. In the research (see results on page 270 of the article), the level of fear of examinations did not change significantly in any of the three educational settings. The researchers agree that this may suggest that all of them kept tension about achievement high during the two years of the study. In our opinion, the differences in the level of fear in the control group (less fear,

-0.24, $p < 0.05$) and those among pupils in the residential educational centers (more fear, -0.02) simply indicate that the pupils in the control group were better prepared for examinations, rather than more highly motivated. The fact that there are no large differences in levels of aspiration between the different groups strengthens this claim.

15. The researchers claim that the pupils in youth centers accepted their educational approach, while in the boarding schools, pupils' academic aspirations are encouraged.

16. The first tool, which is based on one measurement, discovers whether the pupil places the responsibility for his fate on outside forces or takes it upon himself. The second tool is based on five main groups of measurements used to define different aspects of self-image: 1) conflict, embarrassment and self-criticism; 2) components of self-image; 3) reactions; 4) empirical measurements; 5) psychological harmony.

17. Kashti, Y., op. cit.

18. Report of the Committee for Education and Care Alternatives, op. cit., p. 114-115.

19. The information on regular attendance in residential education centers and on the dropout rate is based on the Report of the Committee for Education and Care Alternatives and was taken from "A National Survey of Pupils with Irregular Attendance Records at School in the 1977-78 School Year," Ministry of Education and Culture, 1979.

20. Report of the Committee for Education and Care Alternatives, op. cit., p. 114-115.

21. Bidwell, C.E., "Residential Settings as Administered Communities- Some Observations on Analytical Dimensions and Precipitating Conditions - A Concluding Statement," In: Residential Education in Israel, Report of the Israeli-American Seminar on Out-of-School Education (Chairpersons: R. Shapira and C. Adler), June 1981. Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, pp. 153-162.

22. Kahane, Reuven, "Multi-Model Institutions: A Conceptual Framework for the Analysis of Residential Education Centers," In: Alim, Jerusalem, 1981, pp. 3-15.

23. "Codes" are abstract principles that organize different versions of specific behaviors: formal, professional, primary and informal. According to his conceptual framework, residential education centers are defined as multiparadigmatic structures, i.e., a general model that includes different codes. The paradigms are: the Formal Paradigm (codes: defined and permanent standards of action, hierarchic distribution of authority, and so on); the Paradoxical Paradigm (codes: flexible standards of behavior, professional ethics, supervision by professional colleagues, and so on); the Primary Paradigm (codes: direct and diffuse relations between individuals, supervision through group pressure, and so on); and the Informal Paradigm (codes: symmetrical relations, voluntary work, multidimensionality in action, moratorium, and so on). See Kahane, op. cit.

24. All this material is taken from Kahane, op. cit.

SECTION E

PROGRAMS AIMED AT THE RELINKING OF YOUTH IN DISTRESS TO THE MAIN SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

STREET CORNER GROUPS - YOUTH IN DISTRESS

GIRLS IN DISTRESS

In Israel, as in other developing countries, about 10% of adolescents drop out of the educational system and neither work nor study. These youngsters are in various stages of social alienation on the one hand, and at various levels of risk of becoming delinquents on the other.

It is important to note that in Israel there is great concern with and awareness of the need to rehabilitate these youngsters and to reintegrate them into the social system. To this end, those involved in education must intensify planning and the investment of resources to prevent dropping out of school, which is the first step toward becoming disassociated from society. Of those who do drop out, some drift to the fringes of society and at times into delinquency necessitating intensive rehabilitative educational measures.

STREET CORNER GROUPS -- YOUTH IN DISTRESS*

Against the background of Israeli egalitarianism and its great manpower needs, the human wastage due to disassociation of youth in distress has growingly become the concern of politicians and educators. The issues of youth in distress have been especially pressing, and accordingly have been the target of many attempts to rehabilitate and give a second chance to such youth.

The lack of satisfaction with these programs, and the feeling that they do not really solve the problems which they address has been the subject of many publications, including reports by public commissions and those of researchers and other experts in the field. These publications recommend various courses of action, at the same time pinpointing a number of problems relating to the implementation, of both research and the action that would be based on it. These include:

(1) the fact that youths experience different degrees of social deprivation, which find expression in alienation;[1]

(2) how to define the population;[2]

(3) how to interpret the available data concerning social disassociation;[3]

(4) how to deal with the education and successful integration of these young people.[4]

These studies pinpoint other important issues: first, we have had a great deal of experience in the promotion of the care and rehabilitation of different types of youth in distress; and second, in Israel there are many types of programs[5] that deal with the needs of youth in distress and help them to secure the basic education

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*For the purpose of this survey, "youth in distress" is defined as those who do not function in any of the roles that society offers adolescents (mainly study and work) due primarily to the lack of resources to assist them (see note 2 at end of this chapter).

necessary for them to function in the adult world. There are also various educational alternatives and a number of rehabilitative programs for disassociated youth.[6] The problem is only to distinguish between whose programs that have been successful and those that have not.

In this chapter we refer to a number of alternative programs open to youths in distress, which have been the subject of evaluation studies. A basic assumption of these programs is that they can offer young people the necessary resources for their reintegration into society. In this way it is hoped that their antisocial tendencies will be curbed on the one hand, and that, on the other, they will be enabled to exploit opportunities for upward social mobility formerly beyond their reach. These informal (or semiformal) frameworks comprise an appropriate, and sometimes the only available, channel for the social reintegration of disassociated youth.

Street Corner Groups

One way to work with youth in distress is with outreach counselors who work with them on their "home ground," i.e., on the street in their own community or neighborhood, or wherever they normally gather. Although this method is commonly used, there has been very little systematic research on these efforts. From those studies that have been done, however, a number of issues emerge, which in our opinion are crucial to any discussion of street work as an alternative educational measure for youth in distress. These issues include: definition of the target population, how to work with groups, the role of the street corner groups, the role of the counselors, and the creation of new opportunities.

The population. There is general consensus among researchers that the definition of the target population and the actual composition of the street corner group are discrepant. Prospective street

group counselors are told by the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs that their attention should be directed to "youths who are cut off from any framework, delinquent youths or youths on the border of delinquency." In addition they are instructed to "make contact with street corner groups of youths aged between 14 and 18 years old."[7]

Data on the extent of the problem come from two sources. The Department for Youth in the Ministry of Education and Culture has records about approximately 199 street corner groups, while the Service for Youth in Distress in the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs deals with approximately 125 such groups. Overall, some 6,000 youths seem to be involved. Not all of them are unemployed or school dropouts, and some are older than 18 years.

About 15% of the membership of the groups in the province of the Department for Youth of the Ministry of Education and Culture are over 18 years of age, as compared with approximately 45% of those in groups under the egis of Service for Youth in Distress of the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs.[8] Volansky found that the average age of 10 street corner group members whom he studied was 17.1 years.[9] This confirms Shlesinger's finding of an average age of 17.4 years of the group members in his sample.[10] Dery also found that the average age of the youths in the groups in Jerusalem is 17.5, while 44% of them are over 18 years old.[11] The Service for Youth in Distress of the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs has data (from January 1978) on 1,013 youths in 33 locations.[12] These data show that 27.5% of the youths in the groups are 19 years old or more, while 46% of all the total group population is 18 years old or more. Shlesinger's survey of the street corner groups within the province of the Ministry of Education and Culture, shows that 48.5% of their members either work or study.[13] In addition to this, the fact that a high proportion of the youths who

do not work or study are 19 or over, shows that the street corner group counselors are only partially successful in reaching their target population (14 to 18 year olds who neither work nor study, or who are already delinquent or on the verge of becoming so). Volansky is of the opinion that the high average age of these youths indicates that the contact with them begins too late, when they have already been cut off from formal education and are approaching the age of compulsory military service.[14] This leaves a relatively short time for the reeducation. Perhaps this explains the limited success of this method in Israel.[15]

On the basis of his research, Volansky believes that this population does not fit the official definition of youth in distress. They are all from disadvantaged neighborhoods, indeed, but are older than stipulated, and most of them either work or study. Although the existing data are not sufficiently detailed to allow for a more accurate definition of the population on specific criteria (such as both study and work, only work, only study, neither work nor study), they nonetheless make it clear that this population is not the target population as defined.

The Report of the Committee for Educational and Care Alternatives for Youths who have Dropped Out of Educational and Vocational Training Frameworks called for a renewed examination of the population in need of street corner counselors, because: "there is a large population of youths who study regularly who form part of the street corner groups.[16]

Working with the groups. Shlesinger discusses at length the arguments for and against street group work. Working with the group contributes to its unity and this is consonant with the group's norms. This is, indeed, the generally preferred method for working with youth in distress in Israel.[17] On the other hand, individual treatment can swiftly bring about demonstrable and enduring results

and provides support for the youth as he severs his former social ties. Thus it may minimize possibly negative influences in those cases when the group influence is negative and characterized by antisocial norms.[18] Each counselor thus must make his own assessment of the kind of care -- group or individual -- that is most appropriate in a given case; his choice will depend on both the characteristics of the youths and of the group, as well as on his own skills, attitudes and preferences.

The roles of the street corner groups and of the counselor. There are two frameworks available for youths in distress outside the formal educational system. The first functions within the Youth Department of the Ministry of Education and Culture and is referred to as "Youth Groups;" the second functions within the Services for Youth in Distress in the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs and is referred to as "Street Corner Groups." In the opinion of the Committee for Educational and Care Alternatives..."the aims of these two frameworks should be to reach out to youths who have dropped out of all educational and vocational training frameworks. The group counselor himself, with the help of others, should work towards earning the trust of these youths, in order to arouse their motivation to participate actively in frameworks that may help rehabilitate them."[19] The Committee's report claims that research shows that the street group contributes to neither rehabilitation and reintegration, nor does it provide the resources necessary for normal functioning in society. Supportive and counseling services, personal guidance and care, guidance in the use of leisure time, sport, education, legal aid and psychological counseling are only some of the resources needed to promote their reentry into the worlds of study or work and their return to the community.

The group counselor assumes the role of mediator between the

youths and the various institutions involved, and he may be the only person who can assume this role. His work is difficult because it demands dual loyalties: on the one hand, he must be loyal to the group, and on the other to society.[20] This problem, in addition to the difficulty of translating the official goals of street group work into a flexible program, emphasizes the importance of the counselor's personality and abilities. Volansky affirms that: a) only professional workers, who are familiar with this population and its limitations, can be effective in planning ways to work with it; b) the youths will turn to the group counselor if he is known to have the right contacts, initiative, and the ability to deal with their problems, and if his work in this field is demonstrably of a high standard; c) there was a change in the behavior and functioning of those individuals and groups who turned to the counselor for help with their problems. 58% of the youths who said they had turned to the counselor, felt that there had been a change since the arrival of the counselor, while 74.1% of those who said that they did not turn to the counselor, felt there had been no change in their behavior ($p \leq 0.05$). Another finding of this research was that a significant difference existed between those who had received help from their counselor in solving their problems (79.5% reported change) and those who felt they had not received help (52.7% did not report any change $p \leq 0.05$).[21]

These and other findings of this study point to the powerful contribution the counselor makes to the smooth functioning of the group and emphasize the significance of his role in dealing with complex group situations and the manifold needs of group members. According to Dery, the counselor needs professional skills, which he doubts the available training courses and supplementary courses can provide.[22] He believes it is necessary to change the focus of the work so that, instead of caring for the youths themselves, they would

be involved in identifying the target population, making contact with them and acting as liaison between the youths and the institutions that are in a position to deal with their problems. This conclusion is similar to Shlesinger's, who also suggests limiting the counselor's role to identifying those youths in need of help. He justifies this recommendation on the grounds that the average counselor is unable to deal with complex problems and becomes frustrated in his attempts at rehabilitation. In recognition of this problem, counseling offices were set up in 1979 by the Ministry of Education and Culture so that young people may turn to them directly for professional help.[23]

The Committee for Educational and Care Alternatives also concluded that the group counselor working alone is not in a position to deliver the services or maximize the resources necessary to channel youth in distress in the direction of study, work, the community and the army. The Committee's report recommended that "...the counselors, rather than trying to work directly with such youth, should use the relevant services of the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Ministry of Education, Youth Department professionals and the Youth Counseling Offices, in places where these exist.[24]

The creation of new opportunities. "The main aim of the systems responsbile for the street corner groups is in finding a framework suited to each member's unique situation and which will promote and rehabilitate the young person and be capable of giving him the stability necessary to set him on the road towards education and social integration."[25] This approach is supported by that of Landau: "There is no point in trying to achieve meaningful change in the youths' behavior if their basic conditions for growth do not change. From this point of view, the scope of change must be much wider: the creation of opportunities to grow through education, employment and social status."[26] Volansky agrees with this evaluation.[27] He

also concurs with Miller and Clowerd and Ohlin about the creation of new opportunities: "What is necessary is to create opportunities and to adapt them to the needs and talents of the youths. The counselor must work intensively in order to find constructive opportunities for the youths, such as an employment or a study framework, and he must also guide them in leisure-time activities and be with them during the right hours. These activities will prevent the youths from getting involved in criminal activities."[28] Volansky recommends "the search for solutions adapted to the various needs of youth and careful supervision of their implementation. If services were adapted to the needs of youth in distress, the magnitude of the problem would be reduced."[29]

According to Dery, counselors, supervisors and coordinators of street corner groups all stress that the lack of opportunities for marginal youths to obtain employment suited to their talents and training is a major obstacle in their work.[30]

On the basis of both expert opinion and of reports from the field, it is clearly essential to increase the cooperation between the various government offices and agencies in creating opportunities that will offer youth the chance of reintegration into society.

All the research reports and publications discussed in this chapter recommend measures that should be put into effect in order to reduce the severity of the problems of youth in distress. At the same time, those who are active and informed in this field are aware of the grave difficulties in and limited success of working with youth in distress. There is reason to doubt that an isolated street group, with its counselor, is capable of providing marginal youth with all the resources necessary for his resocialization. There are similar doubts about the chance of dealing effectively with these youngsters' problems while they still identify with their

street habitat. Exposed to all the negative influences of this environment, they stand little chance of not relapsing into delinquent and deviant behaviors.

Girls in distress.[31] A wide range of services deal with the problem of girls in distress, including various educational programs, vocational training and employment, clinics, shelters and a number of special projects. The assumption underlying these resources is that the characteristic problems of these girls and their possible solutions are quite different from those of boys in distress. This differential approach is based on the research on girls in distress carried out by Dery and Itzkovitch, which makes recommendations on the whole system of services provided for them.[32] These recommendations are based on an in-depth analysis of the two largest branches of the Agency for Girls in Distress (in Tel Aviv and Jerusalem).

The main conclusions drawn from the research concern the lack of a clear comprehensive policy. This conclusion is based on an examination of the Agency, which is responsible for the rehabilitation and welfare of about 2,400 girls aged from 14 to 21 years, have no stable social ties, have dropped out of the educational system and are unemployed. These girls have a history of vagrancy and attempted suicide.

The Agency for Girls in Distress includes a large number of public agencies that offer them a number of options, ranging from elementary education through military service. According to the researchers, the central problem of the Agency is a lack of systems management. The main branch of the Agency for Girls in Distress has been developed over the past 10 years and is oriented to the rehabilitation of the girls. It is responsible for financing, operating and supervising the services of the professional workers in the local authorities. Although this Agency is the primary proponent of special treatment for girls in distress, it neither

attempts to locate such girls or to make contact with them. This despite the well-known fact that, in many cases, the problems of girls in distress are not manifested only in terms of dropping out of school or being unemployed.

In 1974, 7.5% of girls from 14 to 17 years of age neither worked nor studied, and in 1978 the percentage was virtually the same (about 7.6%).[33] The research indicates that the proportion of girls who neither work nor study remains stable over time, and it emphasizes the fact that the system operates on an ex post facto basis, i.e., it concentrates on treating problems after the fact rather than on preventing them.[34] The girls' problems often result in their leaving home[35] rather than in delinquent behavior.[36] This fact lends further credence to the recommendation put forward by Dery and Itzkovitch concerning "...the need to locate and care for the girls while they are still in elementary school, and to initiate contact with girls who are cut off from all social institutions as well as with those who are working or are receiving vocational training.[37]

In the light of this situation, the researchers recommend that the Ministries of Education and Culture and of Welfare and Social Affairs cooperate in setting up experimental projects that would integrate rehabilitation efforts with the provision of employment and vocational training so as to aid girls who are alienated and have essentially dropped out of the larger society.[38] The researchers also emphasize the importance of setting up an information system, and they call for extensive evaluation research in order to assess the effectiveness of the services offered by the Ministries of Education and Culture and of Labor and Social Affairs.[39]

Notes

1. Resources referred to are: familial, ecological, communal, cultural, educational, economical, social class, and political. P. 17-21 in: The Prime Minister's Committee for Children and Youth in Distress. The Report of the Sub-Committee on Informal Education and Community Work, (Chairman, Chaim Adler), Jerusalem 1972, 150 pp. (in Hebrew).

2. About the problems of defining the population see:
   -Dery, David, Youth who Does Not Study or Work. Analysis of the Problem and Recommendations. The Deputy Prime Minister's Office, Jerusalem, 1979, p. 12 and 26 (in Hebrew).
   -Volansky, Ami, Work with Street Corner Groups. Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, 1979, p. 32-47 (in Hebrew).
   -Shlesinger, Chaim, Kiryat Noar, An Attempt to Deal with Youth in Distress in Kiryat Shmona. Ministry of Education and Culture and the Municipality of Kiryat Shmona, March 1980, p. 17-24 (in Hebrew).

3. Dery, D., op. cit., p. 10.

4. The Prime Minister's Committee, op. cit., p. 4.

5. -Report of the Committee for Education and Care Alternatives for Youths who have Dropped Out of Educational or Vocational Training Frameworks, (Chairman, Chaim Adler), the Ministry of Education and Culture, Jerusalem, 1980, p. 72-131 (in Hebrew).
   -The Prime Minister's Committee, op. cit.

6. Report of Committee for Educational and Care Alternatives, op. cit., p. 72-131.

7. Dery, D., op. cit., p. 27

8. Report of Committee for Educational and Care Alternatives, op. cit., p. 63.

9. Volansky, A., op. cit., p. 32.

10. Shlesinger, Ch., Research Report on Supervision of Street Corner Groups, Ministry of Education and Culture, Youth Department Jerusalem, June 1978, p. 28 (in Hebrew).

11. Dery, D., op. cit., p. 27.

12. The Ministry for Social Welfare, Division of Youth Development and Correction, Guide for Street Corner Group Counsselors (with illustrations of field situations), Ben Zion Kerem, Jerusalem, 1977, 14 p. (in Hebrew).

13. Shlesinger, Ch., Report, 1978, op. cit.

14. Volansky, A., op. cit., p. 32.

15. Shlesinger, Ch., Report, 1978, op. cit.

16. Report of Committee for Educational and Care Alternatives, op. cit., p. 65.

17. Dery, D., op. cit., p. 29.

18. Klein, M.W., Juvenile Gang in Context, Prentice Hall, N.J., 1969.

19. Report of Committee for Educational and Care Alternatives, op. cit., p. 62-66.

20. See description in: Ran Shorer, The Night is Theirs. Street Corner Groups in Israel, Sifriat Poalim, 1977 (in Hebrew).

21. Volansky, A., op. cit., p. 69-70.

22. Dery, D., op. cit., p. 38.

23. Shlesinger, Ch., Kiryat Noar, op. cit., p. 21.

24. Report of Committee for Educational and Care Alternatives, op. cit., p. 66.

25. Ibid., p. 64.

26. Landau, Simcha, Analysis of Changes in the Behavior of Youths in Street Corner Groups, Ministry of Social Welfare, Jerusalem, August 1973 (in Hebrew).

27. Volansky, A., op. cit., p. 85.

28. -Miller, W.B. et al., "Agression in a Boy's Street Corner Group," Psychiatry, Vol. 24, Nov. 1961, p. 283-299.
-Clowerd, R.A. and Ohlin, Lloyd E., Delinquency and a Theory of Delinquent Groups, The Free Press, Glencoe, IL., 1966.

29. Volansky, A., op. cit., p. 87-89.

30. Dery, D., op. cit., p. 35.

31. The information in this section is based on a research carried out by David Dery and Doron Itzkovitch, Improving the Welfare of Girls in Distress: Evaluation and Recommendations, The Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, Social Policy Team, Jerusalem, June 1980, 29 p. (in Hebrew).

32. This is the continuation of previous research carried out by the Social Policy Team on Youth who do not Work or Study. The findings of this research were discussed earlier in this chapter.

33. Dery and Itzkovitch, op. cit., p. 7. It has to be taken into consideration that in 1980 the Central Bureau of Statistics, Publication No. 628, p. 16, reported that 1,800 girls are married before they reach the age of 18 and are included in

the population of girls who do not study or work. At the same time, if the popoulation of girls between the ages of 14 and 17 years who neither study nor work is about 7,300 (7.6% of the 95.9 thousand youths in this age group) there is still a large number of girls who do not belong to any formal social institution.

34. Dery and Itzkovitch, op. cit., p. 7.

35. Ibid., p. 12. About 60% of the girls are between the ages of 15 and 17 years.

36. Ibid., p. 10.

37. Ibid., p. 3.

38. Ibid., p. 3.

39. Ibid., p. 4.

SECTION F

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

TEHILA

In closing, we come full circle back to our starting point. We started by discussing projects that attempt to intervene at the family level and now present a project aimed at adults, most of them parents. TEHILA - the program presented here, in spite of the fact that it has not as yet been evaluated - is the most structured and largest project developed in Israel for adult education in general and to reduce illiteracy in particular.

TEHILA: AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM FOR THE ADULT LEARNER

TEHILA is a national program for the basic education of adults. It was initiated in 1977 and administered by the Department of Adult Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture. It currently operates in conjunction with municipalities, community centers, workers' committees, women's organizations and recently it has also been adopted by Project Renewal.

In 1982, the program embraced 16,000 students in 76 centers throughout the country. Through TEHILA, adults are involved in long-term studies, including literacy training for those with no formal schooling, followed by different levels of four-year systematic studies. Students are placed at different levels according to their previous learning experiences and individual background. Classes are held regularly on fixed days. In some centers, baby-sitting is provided.

Although essentially informal, TEHILA centers have been institutionalized in many ways: regular schedules, inservice training for teachers, approved curricula, supervision, and the awarding of certificates. While at the first two levels, attention is directed entirely to the acquisition of the basic skills of reading, writing, arithmetic and oral self-expression, the two higher levels are devoted to linguistic skills, expository writing and correspondence, systematic development of various intellectual skills and preparatory subject matter. Special books and learning materials appropriate for the adult student are prepared.

The TEHILA program lays great stress on both community life and on cultural enrichment. The feelings of competence acquired during the learning process are considerable and are expressed by the students in imaginative and exciting ways. In 1981, a new program of advanced TEHILA studies was implemented. This program com-

prises courses in general education and in specific disciplines; they were prepared by Everyman's University, in conjunction with the Ministry of Education and Culture. This curriculum is designed to fill the gap in educational opportunities at the intermediate level between basic TEHILA and regular Open University courses.

TEHILA achievements have to be assessed according to several criteria: acquisition of good learning and reading habits: development of cognitive skills; better understanding of the surrounding world; broadening of perspectives; enhanced use of communication media; development of a feeling of belonging to a larger "community of learners" involved in a similar process.

Some of these criteria are difficult to quantify, and occasional failures or setbacks are not necessarily proper indicators of the overall success or failure of the program. These negative indicators may include absenteeism, teachers who despair because of difficult working conditions, and difficulty in recruiting a sufficient number of students. In spite of the problems inherent in TEHILA, Program Director, Dr. Rachel Tokatli asserts[1,2] that, on the whole, the results clearly lean to the positive side. We would like to add that "Israeli folklore" certainly seems to corroborate Dr. Tokatli's assessment: observers and participants speak of the program, both privately and publicly, in the highest terms possible.

At the same time, however, it seems to us that a huge and growing program like TEHILA demands systematic study and evaluation. It goes without saying that any agency funding a program of this magnitude should devote a certain portion of its budget to expert evaluation research. Moreover, it is reasonable to assume that over the years many changes have been made in the TEHILA program in the teaching approach and strategy, the curricula and texts, and in recruitment and follow-up. A systematic study would, among other things, document these changes.

Notes

1. Tokatli, Rachel
   1981 - TEHILA -- An Educational Program for the Adult Learner Ministry of Education and Culture, Department of Adult Education, Jerusalem, 8 p.

2. Tokatli, Rachel
   1981 - Adult Education in Israel. Ministry of Education and Culture, Department of Adult Education, Jerusalem, 14 p.

SECTION G

INFORMAL ORGANIZATION PROJECTS

SHELEF

INFORMAL ORGANIZATION IN DEVELOPMENT TOWNS

SUMMER CAMPS

In contrast to programs in the educational centers where all the children come from disadvantaged areas, we also present an educational project where youths from well-to-do families leave their home communities in order to live with the people in development areas. This project is SHELEF (the Hebrew acronym for "12th Graders to Development Towns") in which youngsters from middle-class families and kibbutzim spend a year of communal living in development towns and study for their senior year in a local high school.

In this section we also present two evaluation studies: one concerning the social functions of the informal education structure in a development town; a second that analyzes the influence of one informal framework (the summer camps) on disadvantaged youth.

PROJECT SHELEF[1]

SHELEF is the Hebrew acronym for Twelfth Graders to Development Towns. Twelfth graders from middle-class urban families volunteer to live and study in a development town during their last year of high school. There, they share communal living facilities, and thus have the opportunity to be independent and responsible for their own affairs and to develop a wide range of social relationships. In 1977-78, the first group of SHELEF volunteers, 15 youngsters in all, formed two groups that went to the development towns of Kiryat Shmona and Kiryat Malachi. The project expanded, and in 1979-80 49 youngsters participated and spent the year in seven development towns.

Schools do not always provide adolescents with adequate opportunities to learn of the many roles and relationships that exist in adult society. SHELEF is a medium through which youngsters can have meaningful social experiences in conjunction with their school work. Moreover, the officials of the Ministry of Education and Culture who initiated the program thought that SHELEF would offer new social school interactions in areas which otherwise students could never experience due to the homogeneous composition of the population. It was assumed that this would not only broaden the spectrum of social experiences of the high school students in development towns, but might also have an impact on their scholastic achievements. Finally it was intended that establishing the program in development towns would be symbolic of the commitment of the better-endowed center of society to the weaker periphery - and would help to unite them.

Over the years, the project has become institutionalized and is supported by the Ministry of Education and Culture. It operates under the auspices of the Israeli Boy Scout Movement. The youngsters are adopted by local families but they live as a group in a rented

apartment. A paid housemother cleans the apartment and cooks one hot meal a day; a warm relationship is usually formed with her. Over the year, they get to know the inhabitants of the development town; this tends to broaden their tolerance and to reduce some of the stereotyped images they may have of sectors of the population that are different from themselves.

The local high school principal, assisted by a project coordinator and a guidance counselor who help the students with their studies and problems, is in charge of SHELEF.

The only evaluation study of SHELEF examines "the unique inter-ethnic contact situation provided by the SHELEF project and its consequences concerning change of ethnic stereotypes among SHELEF participants."[1]

The study population comprised the 49 SHELEF volunteers during the academic year 1979-80.[2] The results "indicate that the tendency to generalize and to relate to people in categories decreased over the year, and was replaced by a more individualistic approach to people different from one's own."

The data were based on an anonymous questionnaire concerning the respondent's personal background and on measures of inter-ethnic relations. The respondents were asked to rate social and personal traits of people of Eastern and Western origin in general, and of development town residents in particular, at both the beginning and the end of the year. The same questionnaire was administered to a control group of 62 twelfth grade students who came from the same schools as the SHELEF volunteers and were matched to the SHELEF youngsters in terms of academic and socioeconomic status.

The results showed that at the end of the year SHELEF members perceived both people of Eastern origin and of development towns more positively than they had at the beginning of the year, while they were less favorably inclined to people of Western origin

than was the control group.[3]

The hypothesis put forward was that SHELEF members would make a sharper distinction between Jews of Eastern origin and development town residents at the end of the year, and would have a more positive image of development town residents. It was found that this held true for social characteristics, but not for personal ones. At the beginning of the year, SHELEF members gave their own ethnic group the highest rating,[4] but by the end of the year they rated Eastern and Western Jews similarly.[5] In the control group there was no such change.

Another measure of interethnic relations was the degree of willingness to associate closely with development town people. SHELEF members expressed a great willingness to associate with development town people at the beginning of the year, but with some reservations, especially concerning more intimate types of contact. At the end of the year there was "unanimous support to associate at all levels of intimacy."

The program has continued to expand, and now includes groups of students from religious high schools. The positive results of the research indicate that it is worthwile to expand and strengthen this program, and to carry out further evaluation studies.

Ethnic Valuation (mean scores and standard deviations)

	Traits		Research Group		Control Group	
			$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Western Jew	Social	Before	4.80	.819	4.96	1.041
		After	4.65	.441	5.12	.750
	Personal	Before	4.64	.714	4.14	1.239
		After	4.42	.492	4.78	.526
	Overall	Before	4.73	.672	4.34	1.071
		After	4.54	.349	4.97	1.102
Eastern Jew	Social	Before	3.97	.979	4.58	.669
		After	4.33	.593	4.27	.378
	Personal	Before	4.23	.981	4.69	.661
		After	4.57	.518	4.62	.732
	Overall	Before	4.09	.939	4.60	.506
		After	4.41	.499	4.47	.669
Development Town Residents	Social	Before	3.59	1.046	4.05	.817
		After	4.05	.435	3.91	.432
	Personal	Before	4.24	.880	4.58	.669
		After	4.56	.475	4.75	.872
	Overall	Before	4.09	1.000	4.51	.732
		After	4.51	.444	4.54	.654

Notes

1. All the information on this project is taken from "Inter-ethnic Contacts in an Alternative Educational Environment: the Israeli SHELEF Project," Orit Ichilov and Shira Even-Dar, School of Education, Tel Aviv University, 1982, 25 p.
2. Kiryat Shmona, Yeruham, Beit Shean, Migdal Ha'emek, Shederot, Hatzor, Kiryat Malachi.
3. These results are statistically significant, $P \leq 0.05$.
4. The differences were statistically significant, $P \leq 0.05$.
5. The differences were no longer statistically significant.

INFORMAL ORGANIZATION IN A DEVELOPMENT TOWN

The project "Education in a Development Town: Social and Psychological Aspects," warrants special attention. This project which was carried out by faculty members of the School of Education at the University of Tel Aviv,[1] is the outcome of the concerted efforts of a group of scholars directed at the educational system of one development town - Kiryat Malachi. Of the eight studies done at Tel Aviv University, this one seems to be relevant to this survey.

The Social Function of Informal Education Structures in a Development Town

The purpose of the study of a development town was to examine the social function of informal education structures in a development town in the following terms: processes of allocation and mobility and social integration, given the peripheral position of the development town vis-à-vis the mainstream of the larger society.

Four organizational characteristics of informal educational structures were examined: the social status of the program and its participants; the composition of its membership (exclusively elite as opposed to integrated); the orientation of the program (cosmopolitan or local); and its value orientation (on the continuum of collectivism vs. individualism).

Three types of local informal education structures were examined: youth movements, a cultural center, and a work-study program for marginal youth. The findings show that indeed the activities of informal educational structures have differential effects on the youth, depending on their organizational characteristics.

Youth were generally found to accept the fundamental values of Israeli society. The higher the social status of the youth organization and its members, the weaker was their identification with

the local setting and the stronger was their attraction to the social center. Thus, relatively homogeneous youth movements attract the upwardly mobile and achievement-oriented adolescents in town, and perhaps even encourage their out-migration to the cities.

The heterogeneous composition of a cultural center enhances social integration at the local level, and youth participating in them tend to identify at this level. The work-study programs seem to promote social integration of marginal youth, but places them in the lower social strata.

The investigators suggest that their analytical model may be useful for studies and programming needs in other development towns.

Note

1. Shapira, Rina and Kashti, Yitzhak, "The Social Function of Informal Education Structures in a Development Town," In: Education in Development Town. Social and Psychological Aspects, Part I, School of Education, Tel Aviv University, 1981, pp. 16-124.

SUMMER CAMPS[1]

In this section we summarize a research project that used informal organizations to test the theory of informal structures proposed by Kahane and Rapoport in general and the assumption that disadvantaged adolescents in particular will be enriched by informal educational experiences. Their major question was how and in which directions can youth associations enhance the transition during adolescence from childhood to adulthood, especially that of disadvantaged adolescents. The researchers developed a model of seven structural dimensions (an "ideal type" model) for understanding the impact of informal frameworks on the behavior and actions of youth.

Six summer camps sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Culture were used as quasi-laboratory frameworks that were representative of informal organizations, to test the research hypothesis: "the higher the 'informality' of a given framework, the more likely participants are to develop a more differentiated perception of roles, and will perform accordingly; and b) the more differentiated will their criteria be in the process of making interpersonal choices."

Of the six summer camps, three were randomly assigned to the experimental group, where the informal dimensions were manipulated. This group comprised 144 girls and boys between the ages of 14 and 17. The remaining three summer camps constituted the control group, comprised of 145 youths. The youths in both groups were disadvantaged.

The research design included both segmental and longitudinal comparisons. Tests were administered at the beginning of camp, at the end of camp, and 9 months after camp had ended. In the follow-up phase the youngsters were retested. An additional group of adolescents participated, who had not

taken part in any summer camp.

Participant observation and attitude questionnaires produced data related to the degree of informality, at the general and specific levels. In this way different profiles of informal organizations located at different points on the continuum of informality were obtained.

The research indeed established empirically that, with increasing intensity of the informal nature of summer camps, youth generally - and those of disadvantaged background in particular - will display a higher level of role differentiation, in both their attitudes and behavior.

Notes

1. Rapoport, Tamar, The Structure of Informal Frameworks and Their Impact on Youth: the Case of Summer Camp. The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 1980, 480, xxiii p. (Ph.D. Thesis, under the supervision of Reuven Kahane and Chaim Adler).

SECTION H

COMMUNITY BASED INTERVENTION PROGRAMS

BRIDGING THE GAP

THE EDUCATIONAL WELFARE PROGRAM

We open the last section of reported programs of this survey with a university-based leadership training program for young adults from disadvantaged towns and neighborhoods, which expects them to return to their communities after the successful completion of training.

We also decided to include here a description of the Education Welfare Program of the Ministry of Education and Culture as a community-wide program. The relatively substantial resources available to the programs gave rise to a wide range of educational projects aimed at whole communities.

Bridging the Gap

University Graduates and Political Development
The Case of Israel[1]

A program called "Bridging the Gap,"[2] is operating in Israeli universities. Its goals are to recruit students from deprived areas and to assist them to acquire higher education on the condition that they return to their (or similar) communities and work toward social change. The study presented here explores the outcome of this program by examining the political, socioeconomic and psychological profiles of 309 students, their attitudes while they were studying and their performances after they graduated.

The essential elements of the community-developer role are also scrutinized. A comparison was made between those university graduates who had been trained to assume the role of community leaders and graduates of the Technion who studied the profession of their choice. Both groups of graduates came from similar communities, were of Asian or African origin, were members of large families, and had parents with little education.

It was found that higher education induced change in the lives of all the graduates. However, those who received leadership training were more politically active and more involved in their communities than were those who became professionals. The research findings suggest that academically trained people from deprived communities can indeed form a bridge between the mainstream and the periphery of society that can contribute to the transformation of the communities from which they come.

Notes

1. Yishai, Yael, "University Graduates and Political Development. The Case of Israel," Department of Political Science, University of Haifa, 1982. This paper was prepared for the IPSA XII World Congress, Rio de Janeiro, August 9-14, 1982.

2. The "Bridging the Gap" program, established by the University of Haifa in 1974, was designed to make higher education available to members of deprived communities. The program is in its 7th year; it encompasses close to 1,000 students and about 300 graduates are active in various official and professional capacities in the north of Israel.

The Educational Welfare Program in Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat

Follow-up Report[1]

The Educational Welfare Program[2]

In 1975 the Ministry of Education and Culture began to implement a multidimensional project called "The Educational Welfare Program." The program has two main spheres of activity: a) The Settlement Plan[3] provides comprehensive educational treatment in about 90 settlements and disadvantaged neighborhoods throughout the country. Close to two-thirds of the program's yearly budget is allocated to this activity. The planning and implementation of the various educational programs, as well as budget allocations are performed by local, autonomous steering committees; and b) treatment on a nationwide scale of children and youth in distress.[4]

We review here the activities of the Educational Welfare Program in two settlements -- Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat. The report was written by the evaluation follow-up unit of the Educational Welfare Program; it is descriptive in nature and deals with the implementation of the program in its various fields. The follow-up study, performed during the 1978-79 school year, included on-site visits, structured interviews, informal conversations and questionnaires. Four of the report's six chapters are summarized here.

Chapter 1: A Socioeducational Profile of Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat

The investigators used existing records as comparative data on the following aspects: a) a socioeconomic and demographic profile of the two settlements studied. A Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs publication called "A Social Profile of Settlements in Israel"[5] that provides data on the relative levels of distress in the various settlements served as the main source of information; and b) a description of the educational network in Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat.[6] In this case, the main source of information was the yearly Budget Report of the Educational Welfare Program in Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat, as well as publications by other units in the Ministry of Education and Culture.

Chapter 2: Implementation of the Educational Welfare Program in Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat -- The Local Steering Committees

The functioning of the central steering committees and of the committees in the various fields was evaluated. The evaluation was based on structured interviews followed by informal discussions with members of the various committees. It was found that the main functions of the steering committees are the selection of suitable programs and the implementation, as well as follow-up, of program activities in the various areas.

In both Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat, members of the steering committees expressed satisfaction in the overall functioning of the committees. They were also pleased with their freedom of action in implementing the program.*

One of the main problems mentioned by committee members in both localities concerned locating suitable manpower to run the

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*It should be noted that one of the major considerations in selecting Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat as the subjects of the study was the proper functioning of the committees, as assessed by the district coordinators and staff personnel in Jerusalem.

programs. However, a comparison between the two localities revealed that the steering committees in Rosh Ha'ayin were coping with more problems than were their colleagues in Kiryat Gat. However, there was insufficient differentiation between the functions of the coordinator and those of the chairman of the central committee. Also, it was felt that special interest groups were influencing the decision-making process.

Chapter 3: Implementation of the Educational Welfare Program in Schools

The follow-up study examined the quality of the program activities from the point of view of expected input and output and the degree to which the school staff participated in the planning of activities.

Almost all the elementary and postelementary schools encompassed by the Welfare Program were sampled. Structured interviews were given to the school principals and to various people connected with the Welfare Program.

The findings indicate that the programs reached three target populations: pupils, parents and teachers. The programs for pupils included artistic and cultural enrichment components and aid-in-learning activities (guided homework preparation); those for parents focused on counseling as well as artistic and cultural enrichment; and the programs for teachers provided guidance and special training. The Welfare Program also played a role in the acquisition of learning equipment. In neither settlement did the program use special school personnel, such as advisors, counseling teachers, etc., to a great degree.

With regard to the second objective of the follow-up study, it was found that most of the elementary school staff participated in the planning of these programs.

Chapter 4: A Survey of Educational Inputs in the Fifth Grade of a Kiryat Gat Elementary School "Yad Itzhak"

This chapter deals with educational inputs directed toward the pupils of one class (Grade 5), their parents and siblings.

The major findings were: 1) The educational inputs in Grade 5 involved 13 subjects and 32 hours of study per week. In the planning of the curriculum, the concern for students' varying levels of aptitude was expressed by the implementation of streaming into three levels in the math and English classes. Special classes were provided for children with special problems. 2) Of the pupils in Grade 5, 79% participated in extracurricular activities, the level of participation varying greatly from pupil to pupil. 3) Forty percent of the mothers of these pupils and 22% of their fathers participated in a variety of enrichment programs. 4) A correlation was found between the level of the pupils' participation in social and extracurricular programs and that of their parents and siblings. In our opinion, this finding shows the strong influence of the family on all its members' participation in enrichment and social activities. 5) A correlation was also found between the children's participation in enrichment and social activities and their levels of achievement. Unexpectedly, it was found that children with medium achievement levels participate less in these activities than do children with high or low achievement levels.

In conclusion, it should be pointed out that these findings are based on a survey of a single class and are not necessarily representative of the other classes in the school. In order to confirm the validity of these findings, similar surveys must be carried out in other classes and schools.

Chapter 5: A Follow-Up Evaluation of MILO (in Rosh Ha'ayin)

MILO -- the Children's Center for Art and Literature -- is one of the activities provided by the Educational Welfare Program for preschoolers. The follow-up study was carried out for about six months, and its character was defined as "descriptive."

MILO attempts to reach three groups: children -- to develop their artistic, literary and linguistic skills; the community -- to enhance self-help at the community level; and kindergarten teachers -- to provide special training in the arts and literature.

Data were gathered from documents related to the program, observations, informal conversations with individuals and groups involved in the program, such as the program director, supervisors and kindergarten teachers.

It was found that the program's objectives were not well defined, and this made it difficult to interpret the findings.

It was found that the job description of the director of MILO was clearly defined, of the kindergarten teachers were less clearly defined. There was no long-term planning nor instruction or guidance material in writing. Nevertheless, a number of local functionaries evaluated the program positively. The children and the kindergarten teachers enjoyed the program equally, the kindergarten teachers reporting that MILO had enhanced their knowledge of the arts and literature. There was also an enthusiastic response to the program on the part of parents.

Notes

1. This review is based on the Ministry of Education and Culture's publication, The Educational Welfare Program in Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat, Follow-up Report, Ministry of Education and Culture, Director-General's Bureau, Care and Welfare Coordination, December 1979, Jerusalem, 174 pages (in Hebrew). It was written by members of the staff of the Welfare Program.

2. The Educational Welfare Program, implemented through the educational system, attempts to bolster the weaker sectors of the population. In this program there is a strong tendency to seek new and innovative ways to raise the welfare and educational levels of disadvantaged populations. It is an outgrowth of the report of the Prime Minister's Committee on Youth in Distress. See references in Appendix.

3. The Educational Welfare Settlement Program, Ministry of Education and Culture, Director General's Bureau, Care and Welfare Coordination, October 1978, 169 pp. (in Hebrew), p. 2.

4. The Educational Welfare Program, Age-Group Level Program, Ministry of Education and Culture, Director General's Bureau, Care and Welfare Coordination, September 1977, 106 pp. (in Hebrew), p. 3.

5. A Social Profile of Settlements in Israel, Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare, Department of Planning and Information, August 1978, (in Hebrew).

6. The Educational Welfare Program in Rosh Ha'ayin and Kiryat Gat, 1979, op. cit.

THE ALLOCATION OF RESOURCES[1]

We report here on some of the research findings on the allocation of resources to schools with mainly disadvantaged children, integrated schools and schools with mainly advantaged children in the years 1973,[2] 1978[3] and 1981.[4] In addition to the comparisons between the three periods (1973, 1978, 1981) additional variables were examined in 1981 (see Table).

Notes

1. Davis, D., Sprinzak, D., Osizon, R., Who Profits from Educational Resources 1973, 1978, 1981. Ministry of Education and Culture, General Director's Bureau, Department for the Fostering of Welfare and Project Renewal, Jerusalem, December 1982, 68 p. (in Hebrew).

2. Minkowitz, A., Davis, D., Bashi, Y., The Evaluation of Educational Achievements in Israeli Elementary Schools. The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, School of Education, June 1977.

3. Razel, A., Care and Welfare - for Whom? Ministry of Education and Culture, Committee for Inputs to Check the Findings of Minkovitz', Davis' and Bashi's Report. December 1978 (in Hebrew).

4. See Davis, D., Sprinzak, D., Osizon, R., op. cit.

Health, welfare and education services according to the percentage of disadvantaged pupils in the schools

	1973			1978			1981		
	dis-advan-taged	inte-grated	well-to-do	dis-advan-taged	inte-grated	well-to-do	dis-advan-taged	inte-grated	well-to-do
I. Help and Care Frameworks in Studies									
Classes for: Mildly disturbed children (Tipulit)	52	57	44	85	93	100	92	95	95
Special education	39	33	0	38	35	39	52	68	52
Remedial-for math & reading (Mesayaat)	35	30	6	54	60	11	60	61	14
Homework-help	44	37	22	58	50	50	48	10	69
II. YOCHAI (Extended school day)	70	27	0	62	32	0	60	24	0
III. Enrichment and Social Activities									
Extracurricular	69	79	83	84	90	87	95	88	100
Library							88	81	76
Plays, concerts, museums							80	74	86
IV. Health and Counseling Services									
Teacher-counselor	26	40	44	54	64	88	52	76	66
Psychologist	35	47	61	50	65	78	68	83	76
Social worker	26	40	33	31	42	33	20	45	24
Nurse	96	93	94	73	100	94	88	98	100
Doctor	48	67	83	31	61	78	20	33	67
Truant officer							76	52	33
V. Regular Educational Activities for Parents in Schools	22	43	44	48	59	61	50	47	65
VI. Teaching Methods and Study Programs									
Activity classrooms							16	43	57
TOAM							12	7	10
NILI							8	7	5
Average number of programs in school							1.8	1.9	2.5

Source: Davis, D., Sprinzak, D., Osizon, R., 1982.

SUMMARY

Our aim in this report has been to present the main findings and results of evaluation studies performed in Israel on enrichment or intervention projects in education that are presently being funded by Project Renewal. As the size of this report indicates, there is a great deal of material that meets these criteria, although, strictly speaking, very little evaluation research has been carried out. It is only because we have defined the term "evaluation" rather broadly that this report has become so voluminous. We have, indeed, decided to include here reference to any written material that presents relevant data of any kind on even a single educational project that is geared to disadvantaged students or youth under the aegis of Project Renewal.

It thus follows that we did not select from the available material on the grounds of its methodological validity, precision, or sophistication. Rather, our report is based on material ranging from rigorous evaluation studies to rather impressionistic observations by persons other than program staff. We hope and believe that we have not omitted any relevant study, however descriptive or impressionistic it may be.

It is worth noting that almost all the educational projects and programs dealt with in our report derive from initiatives of the Ministry of Education and Culture, and most of the evaluation studies mentioned were funded by the Ministry. It seems to us, however, that Project Renewal, which is deeply involved in educational programs (either by funding programs initiated by the Ministry of Education and Culture or those that emerged from the Project itself), should be involved in promoting evaluation studies of these programs.

We would particularly like to propose the promotion of certain types of research and evaluation:

a) Follow-up and evaluation studies of large scale programs already widespread, such as TEHILA (adult education). The extremely heavy funding of these programs would seem to warrant systematic evaluation by researchers external to the projects.

b) Follow-up and evaluation studies of community-based projects like SHELEF, for instance, youth-movement sponsored projects for post high-school, pre-military service volunteers who spend certain periods (a year or more) doing educational and social welfare work in development towns. We do recognize that these are very intensive inputs for the community into which young people from established middle-class backgrounds are introduced in the capacity of paraprofessional community workers. We are also sure that the young persons themselves benefit greatly from the experience. Still, the contribution to the community should be more systematically assessed.

c) Also desirable, although perhaps less urgent, are re-studies by outsiders of programs which have mainly been evaluated by those involved in the programs. HIPPY, Tutorial Programs and the Support System Project come to mind.

In addition to outside evaluations, it seems both essential and feasible to set up a permanent, ongoing data-collection system in Project Renewal neighborhoods. Examples of basic and relatively accessible data are:

i. Information on school dropouts and irregular school attendance; special education attendance; placement in classes according to ability; participation in tutorial programs; transition from elementary to secondary schools; placement in vocational as against academic classes; and rates of success in final and matriculation examinations. The recording of such data annually would allow planners and researchers to calculate changes in the rates of participation in the different facets of

the school system, and in the degree of success in the major examinations.

ii. Participation at the preschool level: continuous attendance at well-baby clinics (using the number of newborns as the standard of measurement); continuous participation in HATAF; attendance at nurseries and kindergartens; and participation in HIPPY.

iii. Extracurricular activities: participation in youth movements; community centers; enrichment courses; adult education (TEHILA); and the existence of street work and participation therein.

This is by no means an exhaustive list, nor is it essential to collect <u>all</u> of this data. Perhaps such data banks could be started in two or three communities on an experimental basis. Local computer-teaching equipment and personnel could be harnessed to such a project.

We should like to conclude this summary with three general observations that emerged from our work, albeit indirectly:

A) In contrast to most industrialized countries, Israel is a highly familistic society, and the family plays a major role in most Israelis' lives. Not only is the family known to be the most potent institution for promoting success or failure in school and in life, but the average Israeli family is receptive to interventions. It would thus seem to be the ideal focus for the investment of time, effort and money by the educational establishment. Such investments may have a preventive effect (as far as school failure is concerned), and may have a "multiplier effect," if one considers that children born later will enjoy the benefits of parent training. Compared with day-care centers (not to speak of residential settings available for adolescents who fail in regular schools), programs that invest in families are inexpensive. We propose, therefore, that studies of family dynamics and family-based success or

rehabilitation efforts be carried out under the auspices of Project Renewal.

B) It seems that multidimensional resocialization programs are more effective than unidimensional ones. There are quite a few multidimensional programs in Israel; education in residential settings is an example. Thus, we propose that residential programs be one of the foci of educational investigation and evaluation.

C) In spite of the fact that the Israeli society places a rather high premium on schooling, we have relatively few school-based intervention programs. We thus propose that a greater investment be made in the planning, implementation and evaluation of such programs.

APPENDIX

Description and evaluation tables

Education in Numbers

As we explained in the Introduction, we are including tables here that present information related to the several sections of this report. Several categories are blank because the relevant information was inexact, lacking or ambiguous. No tables were prepared on the last three studies presented in this survey -- The Educational Welfare Program, Summer Camps and Informal Organization in Development Towns -- because of their character.

HIPPY

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVE	Provide enriching educational experiences for children at home. To increase mothers' sense of involvement in the education of their children.
TARGET POPULATION	Children aged 4 to 6 of mothers with less than 12 years of education.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Mothers of the children.
SETTING	In the home and in group meetings held every two weeks.
INITIAL POPULATION	About 60 experimental and about 80 control families.
CURRENT POPULATION	16,000 families.
ACTIVITIES	Home instruction of children by their mother with structured materials.
DURATION OF PROJECT	Three years.
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education. Ministry of Education and Culture. Local Municipal authorities and the Community Centers Association.

HIPPY

Evaluation of the Project

	I	II
PAPER	Lombard, Avima (Project Director), HIPPY, Final Report, The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education. 1973.	Davis, D. and Kugelman, J., Home Environment: The Impact of HIPPY on the Mother's Role as Educator. 1974.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	The impact of HIPPY on the cognitive development of participant children.	The increase, if any, in HIPPY mother's involvement in her role as educator.
TARGET POPULATION	136 children in a disadvantaged neighborhood.	Mothers of children who participate in HIPPY program.
SECONDARY POPULATION		The children themselves
SETTING	Home instruction as compared with kindergarten teachers' instruction and no instruction.	Families' home.
INSTRUMENTS	Tests administered to all three groups: home instruction, kindergarten group and control group. Pretest included: Columbia Test of Mental Maturity; Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test; Sections I and V of the Marianne Frostig Development Test of Visual Perception; A Shapes-and-Colors test was developed; A Same-Different test was designed. The posttest included: Section V of Frostig Test; Same-Different test; Shapes-and-Colors Test; Matrix test; Home-Story test.	
FINDINGS	Level of achievement was highest in group which received home instruction through HIPPY.	HIPPY had an impact on the mother but it was not as great as had been expected.

HIPPY

Evaluation of the Project

	III	IV
PAPER	Cohen, Hava, Assessment of the Implementation of HIPPY (reported in A. Lombard, Success Begins at Home, 1981). NCJW Institute for Innovation in Education. 1978.	Silberstein, P., The Effect on Tutors on Participating in HIPPY in Terms of Variables Related to Child Rearing. (M.A. Thesis) 1978.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Actual implementation of HIPPY in 1978 and any possible changes occurring in its implementation as a result of rapid expansion.	The effect of the program on older sisters who taught siblings when the mother was illiterate.
TARGET POPULATION	HIPPY participants, coordinators, aides and mothers in six representative locations.	Older sisters of siblings who participated in HIPPY.
SECONDARY POPULATION		
SETTING	Homes of aides and mothers, and regular weekly training sessions for aides.	The home.
INSTRUMENTS	Observation of aides working with mothers and training sessions for aides. Interviews with coordinators, aides, and mothers.	Home interview. Tennessee self-concept scale.
FINDINGS	HIPPY's current operation closely resembles that of the original mode. Mode of operation was strikingly similar in the communities studied. There were strong indications of differences in the quality of operation. Cohen suggests that the level on which the coordinator functions accounts for most of HIPPY's success or lack of it.	No change occurred in child-rearing attitudes and self-image. In methods and knowledge of child-rearing, there was some change.

HIPPY

Evaluation of the Project

	V	VI
PAPER	Alon, E.W., Self-Concept Changes in Adult Participants of HIPPY, (M.A. Thesis) The Hebrew University of Jerusalem. 1980.	Raz, Revital, The Effects of Culturally Disadvantaged Mothers' Involvement in a Child Enrichment Program on the Attitude towards Self, Family and Child Rearing, and their Husband's Perception of Them. (M.A. Thesis) Bar Ilan University, 1980.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Change in mothers' self-concept as a result of their participation in HIPPY.	Mothers' attitudes about family matters, child care and about themselves; husband's relations to his wife as a consequence of changes in her self-concept; if there is a difference in mothers' attitudes toward sons and daughters.
TARGET POPULATION	Mothers of children in HIPPY.	Mothers participating in HIPPY.
SECONDARY POPULATION		
SETTING	The families' homes.	The families' homes.
INSTRUMENTS	The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was administered 3 times over a 2 year period.	Three questionnaires administered to each mother individually.
FINDINGS	Significant changes in self-concept occurred in participant mothers as compared with mothers who dropped out of program. These changes tend to increase with time, although they are most marked at the end of the first year.	Participation in HIPPY was found to have an effect on mothers' knowledge and attitude to child-rearing. There were no differences in sex-condition interaction. Positive contributions of participation in HIPPY on mother's self-concept and in perception of her husband's opinion of her, in comparison with the control group.

HIPPY

Evaluation of the Project

	VII	VIII
PAPER	Frieder, A., Disadvantaged Mothers' Participation in HIPPY as a Factor in Effecting Changes in Husband-Wife Relationships and in their Relations to Herself, the Child, the School and the Community. (M.A. Thesis) Bar Ilan University, 1981.	Silberstein, P., Kareev, Y. and Davis, D., An Evaluation Study of HIPPY, NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, Research Report. 1982. The research was carried out in 1976-79.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Influence on HIPPY mothers as teachers of their own children and on fathers as observers of the program in action.	Impact of HIPPY on educational achievement in 1st and 2nd grade in six communities.
TARGET POPULATION	30 mothers and fathers whose children participate in HIPPY.	412 children (206 pairs of siblings) from HIPPY and control families. The older sibling in the HIPPY group had not participated in HIPPY as his younger sibling had.
SECONDARY POPULATION		
SETTING	The families' homes.	School.
INSTRUMENTS	Questionnaires to mothers on their self concept, free time activities and relationship to their children and school. Questionnaire to fathers on their relationship to their children, school and their perception of their wives' behavior.	Tests in math and Hebrew reading.
FINDINGS	HIPPY mothers showed a higher level of self concept, better relationship with their children and the school and more free time activities than control mothers. HIPPY fathers perceived their wives as having a higher self concept and more free time activities. No differences were found for all other variables. HIPPY mothers were found to have a better relationship with their children than HIPPY fathers.	Effect of HIPPY was more marked in "low risk" families in which older siblings had progressed normally through school. Participation in HIPPY has a consistently positive but small effect on achievement in math and Hebrew in 1st Grade. After 2nd Grade difference scores of HIPPY children in math and Hebrew tests were higher than those of control group, but not significantly so.

HOME ACTIVITIES PROGRAM FOR TODDLERS

HATAF PROJECT

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Enriching the language of mother and child, raising mother's awareness of the child's needs and of the importance of reinforcements, guiding mother in play techniques suitable for toddlers, developing mother's skill in using child's natural experiences as teaching situations.
TARGET POPULATION	Mothers of first-born children between 1 and three years of age
SECONDARY POPULATION	First-born children between 1 and 3 years
SETTING	Homes of mothers participating in program, in 3 neighborhoods in Jerusalem, Beit Shemesh, Yehud and Yavne.
INITIAL POPULATION	10 families
CURRENT POPULATION	400 families
ACTIVITIES	Home visit by aide who brings books, materials and guide sheets for mother and child. Modeling by aide on how to use materials with her child.
DURATION OF PROJECT	Two years
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	NCJW Institute for Innovation in Education, School of Education, Hebrew University; Community centers; Well-baby clinics; Ministry of Education and Culture

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Lombard, Avima and Nissel Channa, Home Guidance for Young Mothers - HATAF Project. 1982. Internal evaluation by team which runs the project.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Knowledge and attitudes relating to development education of young children.
TARGET POPULATION	22 mothers in Beit Shemesh.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	At home.
INSTRUMENTS	Questionnaire for mother about their opinions on the education of small children.
FINDINGS	Mothers who participated in HATAF were more sensitive to the way their children develop, more aware of educational value of different activities with small child, and had a greater tendency to see themselves playing an active part in their child's development and education than mothers in in control group.

TOY LIBRARIES FOR PARENTS

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	To teach parents how to play with their children, assuming that the cognitive, emotional and social development of the children can be enhanced by changes in their parents' attitudes and behavior.
TARGET POPULATION	Parents defined as "disadvantaged."
SECONDARY POPULATION	Their children.
SETTING	Toy libraries in schools, kindergartens, and other community institutions.
INITIAL POPULATION	1975: about 70 libraries.
CURRENT POPULATION	No data due to lack of centralization of the project.
ACTIVITIES	Lending toys and games to parents. Some programs included guidance and instruction as well as counseling on education of the child.
DURATION OF PROJECT	10 weeks.
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	1) Psychological Educational Service of the Jerusalem Municipality. 2) Department for Adult Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture.

TOY LIBRARIES FOR PARENTS

Evaluation of the Project

	I	II
PAPER	Milo, Tamar, The Effect of Toy Lending Library Program on the Self Concept of Mothers and the Relations of their Children Toward Them. Bar Ilan University, 1976	Tamir, Adina, Games as an Enrichment Tool through the Harba-Bi Program. Bar Ilan University, 1975.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Effects on children's attitudes towards their mothers; effects on mother's self-image.	Children's achievements related to subject matter learning intelligence level, levels of emotional and learning adaptability; mothers' behavior toward their children during game activities.
TARGET POPULATION	57 children and their mothers: 28 in experimental group, 18 in control group, 11 who dropped out.	48 children and their mothers: 24 in experimental group, 14 in control group.
SECONDARY POPULATION		
SETTING		Two kindergartens in an area defined as "disadvantaged."
INSTRUMENTS	Family relations test; Fitts' test.	Mehager test (achievement in informative areas); Smilansky test (level of adaptability); parents' development report based on observation of the parents during activities.
FINDINGS	No change in either group with regard to childrens' positive feelings toward their mothers, nor in amount of interaction between mother and child. Mother's self-image increased in comparison with control group.	Posttest showed higher ratings in experimental group for all variables measured. Improvement in most areas of behavior in mothers of the experimental group.

TOY LIBRARIES FOR PARENTS

Evaluation of the Project

	III	IV
PAPER	Noy, Bilha, The Development of Disadvantaged Children's Cognitive and Sensorimotor Skills through Games." 1979.	Ben Yishai, Rachel, Evaluative Research on Toy Libraries for Parents. Hebrew University, 1977.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Cognitive development.	Influence of participation in toy libraries on children's ability to play, their achievement level, cognitive functions and self-image. Mother's self-image. Mothers' attitudes towards play and their relationship with their children.
TARGET POPULATION	42 1st graders and mothers; 15 worked directly with the instructor, mothers of 11 received instruction 16 control group.	202 children in kindergartens and 1st grade all over the country, and their mothers. 76 in experimental group; 80 in control group; 46 whose mothers dropped out of a toy library at some stage.
SECONDARY POPULATION		
SETTING		
INSTRUMENTS	Weschler test, Israeli version of Grina Ortar, Frostig et al. test; Boehm test.	Individualized tests. Children: Raven's, matching test, Danny-Daphna test; Putting the Picture Together test; Grades in Hebrew and arithmetic; Boehm's test. Mothers: Raven intelligence test and personal interviews.
FINDINGS	Both methods of intervention through play led to higher scores in tests of intelligence, perception and conceptualization than did control group. School group rated higher than parents' group.	Most salient was that, in the following school year, childrens' ability to play games had improved. No evidence that games had influenced cognitive or self-image variables. No improvement in self-image of experimental group mothers. Improvement in mothers' attitudes toward and knowledge about play. But no difference, and even partly deterioration in amount of time mothers spent and played with their children.

PARENT-INSTRUCTION GROUPS IN DISADVANTAGED AREAS

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	To increase cooperation between parents and teachers. Guidance for parents in their children's educational development.
TARGET POPULATION	Parents.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Children.
SETTING	Schools.
INITIAL POPULATION	Kindergarten in Mekor Baruch and schools in the Katamon, Shmuel Hanavi and Neve Yaakov neighborhoods.
CURRENT POPULATION	
ACTIVITIES	Group discussions, group instruction and individual guidance, involvement of parents in school activities.
DURATION OF THE PROJECT	1975-76
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Department of Education, Jerusalem Municipality.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Forti, Moshe, Parent-Instruction Groups in Disadvantaged Areas. Department of Education, Jerusalem Municipality, 1979.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Parents' participation in group sessions, the relationship that developed between them and the class teacher and any changes in their attitudes toward their children's education.
TARGET POPULATION	95 mothers from experimental groups; 21 mothers in a control category.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	Schools.
INSTRUMENTS	Questionnaire administered to mothers at the beginning and at the end of the year.
FINDINGS	Although there were improvements on a number of variables, there was a persistent dropout rate and the overall findings are ambiguous.

KEDMA

Parent-Teacher Discussion Groups

Description of the Project		Evaluation of the Project	
OBJECTIVES	To strengthen self-image of parents of disadvantaged children; to bring about a change in their educational activities; to cause change in the relationship of the kindergarten teacher to her profession; to enrich kindergarten curriculum.	PAPER	Nir, Nehama, Lash, Israel, Tod, Jack, KEDMA - Parent-Teacher Discussion Groups, Henrietta Szold Institute, 1973.
		WHAT IS EVALUATED	The effect of the KEDMA program on parents and teachers.
TARGET POPULATION	Parents, kindergarten teachers.	TARGET POPULATION	Parents and teachers participating in the KEDMA project.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Children.	SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	Kindergartens and family homes.	SETTING	Parents' homes and kindergartens.
INITIAL POPULATION		INSTRUMENTS	Questionnaires and lists.
CURRENT POPULATION	Compulsory kindergartens in central region of Israel.	FINDINGS	Parents were satisfied with the group meetings and a new relationship developed between parents and teachers. Parents' self-image improved.
ACTIVITIES	Group discussions.		
DURATION OF THE PROJECT			
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Center for the Integration of Oriental Jewish Heritage and the Department for Adult Education in the Ministry of Education and Culture.		

FAMILY SITUATION

Description of the Project		Evaluation of the Project	
OBJECTIVES	To strengthen family as educational unit; to increase knowledge in field of education; to widen family influence and responsibility for children.	PAPER	Peled, T., Razel, C., Shoham, I. and Duchin, R., Follow-up Study of the Parent Project, Final Report. The Israel Institute of Applied Social Research, 1979.
TARGET POPULATION	(Disadvantaged) parents of young children	WHAT IS EVALUATED	Reactions to program and discussion groups and their influence on viewers and participants in groups.
SECONDARY POPULATION	All viewers of program.	TARGET POPULATION	General public and parents participating in discussion groups and group leaders.
SETTING	At home, watching TV and radio; group meetings.	SECONDARY POPULATION	
INITIAL POPULATION	1000 parent discussion groups throughout the country.	SETTING	In the families' homes and in the discussion groups.
CURRENT POPULATION		INSTRUMENTS	Questionnaires; observation of group discussions.
ACTIVITIES	Watching program on TV (bi-weekly) and alternatively group discussion (bi-weekly).	FINDINGS	Broadcasts were generally popular: low-educated parents of young children enjoyed them more than more highly educated parents of older children. Greater participation in group discussions was by the more highly educated disadvantaged population. Positive changes in the direction of program's goals among participants in group discussions were mainly in the effort to understand the child's point of view and to teach him new things.
DURATION OF PROJECT	Two years		
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Instructional Television Center; Ministry of Education and Culture		

NILI

Individualized Learning Experiment

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVE	Developing a learning environment that is tailored to each pupil's needs.
TARGET POPULATION	Pupils in 1st to 3rd grade, mainly in schools with a high proportion of disadvantaged pupils.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Teachers.
SETTING	School classrooms.
INITIAL POPULATION	1,900 pupils in 32 1st and 2nd grade classes.
CURRENT POPULATION	
ACTIVITIES	Programs for the individualized teaching of the subjects learned in elementary schools. Special emphasis is placed on training the teachers.
DURATION OF THE PROJECT	1st to 3rd grade.
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Ministry of Education and Culture; School of Education, Tel Aviv University; The Center for Educational Technology (Rothschild Foundation).

Final evaluation has not reached us as yet.

TOAM

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	To develop basic skills in math and supply feedback on pupil's progress to teachers.
TARGET POPULATION	Students mainly in development towns.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	Schools (where the computer terminals are located).
INITIAL POPULATION	Netivot (in 1977).
CURRENT POPULATION	1981-82: 16,000 pupils in grades 2 through 6, including 2 special education schools in Netivot and Ashdod.
ACTIVITIES	Training with the computer terminals for two 20-minute periods twice or three times a week.
DURATION OF PROJECT	4 to 5 years (2nd through 6th grade)
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	The Center for Educational Technology, established by the Rothschild Foundation.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Osin, Louis, Teaching with Computers, the TOAM System, Publ. No. 7 The Center for Educational Technology, 1981 and Report on Pupils' Achievements in TOAM in the School Year 1981-82, The Center for Educational Technology, 1982.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Achievements in math.
TARGET POPULATION	Students in grades 2 through 6.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	Schools.
INSTRUMENTS	Computerized exercises.
FINDINGS	Constant progress - achievements in math.

YULA

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	To enhance pupils' cognitive, affective and social functioning, to raise their achievement levels and, hopefully, thereby to increase their chances for successful integration into sociey.
TARGET POPULATION	Elementary school pupils, mainly from disadvantaged families.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Parents.
INITIAL POPULATION	1960-61 it was decided to implement YULA in schools. In 1961-62: 250 classes. In 1962-63: 500 classes, and in 1968-69: 1537 classes in 256 schools.
CURRENT POPULATION	YULA was transferred into YOCHAI. (See YOCHAI.)
ACTIVITIES	Extension of school day with academic and extracurricular studies.
DURATION OF PROJECT	Unlimited period (this program has been in operation for some 20 years).
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Ministry of Education and Culture in co-operation with local authorities and schools participating in the project.

YULA

Evaluation of the Project

	I	II
PAPER	Glickstein, N. and Yam, Y. The Implementation of the Extended Study Day in Disadvantaged Schools. Henrietta Szold Institute, 1966.	Gutman, Ashni and Lash, The Extended School Day (The Influence of the Addition of Teaching Hours on Learning Achievements, Personality and Social Relations). Henrietta Szold Institute, 1972.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Organizational aspects of implementing the program and administrative problems involved in allocating extra hours.	Influence of YULA on achievement rates, social interaction and pupils' self-image.
TARGET POPULATION	Sample of 144 schools in which YULA was implemented in 1968-69.	1,264 children from 37 4th and 5th grade classes. 821 pupils (23 classes) were in a YULA program. 443 pupils (14 classes) formed the control group.
SECONDARY POPULATION		
SETTING	Schools included in the sample.	Classes involved in the research.
INSTRUMENTS	Questionnaires to school principals.	Achievement tests, sociometric and attitude questionnaires for pupils. Attitude questionnaire for teachers and principals.
FINDINGS	The additional hours were not fully utilized. Allocation of time between academic and recreational activities greatly deviated from directives given. The principals preferred to use the additional study hours for guided homework.	Findings were ambiguous. 4th grade pupils in YULA did better than those in control group in certain areas of achievement, but this did not carry over into 5th grade. YULA had no effect on self-image. In the area of social relations, YULA fostered a greater degree of peer solidarity than there was in the control group.

YOCHAI MOSADI

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	To create a balance between the academic curriculum and non-academic activities; to turn elementary school into an educational rather than merely teaching activity.
TARGET POPULATION	Elementary schools, mainly with a disadvantaged population.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Parents.
SETTING	Schools.
INITIAL POPULATION	40 elementary schools.
CURRENT POPULATION	Today the project is continuously being operated in many schools.
ACTIVITIES	Group activities: music, dance, drawing, drama and physical education.
DURATION OF PROJECT	Throughout elementary school.
INSITUTIONS INVOLVED	Ministry of Education and Culture.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Burg, B., The Institutional School Day Experiment in 1973-76. Henrietta Szold Institute, 1978.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	What parents, pupils, teachers and principals think about YOCHAI.
TARGET POPULATION	40 elementary schools.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Parents.
SETTING	Schools.
INSTRUMENTS	Attitude questionnaire and interviews.
FINDINGS	For those involved, it changes the atmosphere in the school. From the point of view of administration, it was found that allowed principals great flexibility. Teachers criticize physical conditions, manpower and budget. They praised the program's ability to enrich and broaden pupils' horizons. Parents were pleased with the program and were influenced by children's feelings toward the program. A systematic research on the influence and consequences of YOCHAI Mosadi has been undertaken.

YOCHAI YISHUVI

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Integration of informal program of social education with formal learning activities.
TARGET POPULATION	2 towns, 21 schools.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	All schools in Lod and Afula.
INITIAL POPULATION	9,100 pupils in the 1st through 8th grades in 1976-77.
CURRENT POPULATION	YOCHAI is implemented on a nationwide basis.
ACTIVITIES	As in YOCHAI Mosadi.
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Ministry of Education and Culture; National Insurance Institute; Department of Working Women in the Histadrut.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Burg, B., The Local Extended School Day Experiment in 1976-78. Part B. Henrietta Szold Institute. 1978.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	What teachers, principals think about YOCHAI Yishuvi.
TARGET POPULATION	9,100 elementary pupils, and staff in 21 elementary schools in Lod and Afula.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Parents.
SETTING	
INSTRUMENTS	Attitude questionnaire.
FINDINGS	The same findings as in YOCHAI Mosadi. The differences between them had to do with the choice of which schools would participate in the experiment.

THE SUPPORT SYSTEM

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Maximal utilization of community resources in coping with educational programs. Development of a general interaction model between the University and the communities for the improvement of the local educational system.
TARGET POPULATION	All students in primary and secondary schools in 3 development towns: Or Yehuda, Kiryat Malachi and Kfar Yona.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Principals, teachers and parents of students in primary and secondary schools. Different groups of the community related to the educational framework.
SETTING	Schools, community centers.
INITIAL POPULATION	Students in primary and secondary schools.
CURRENT POPULATION	The project was terminated after three years.
ACTIVITIES	Counseling to teachers; introducing new study programs; workshops; instruction to mother groups; discussions about educational problems.
DURATION OF THE PROJECT	Three years - 1976-78.
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Professional Staff of the Tel Aviv University School of Education. Ministry of Education and Culture Authorities of the development towns.

There is no evaluation study of this project.

TUTORIAL PROJECTS

PERACH

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Tutors will act as positive models and will motivate children to make efforts so as to succeed in school. The emphasis is academic.
TARGET POPULATION	Disadvantaged elementary and junior high school students
SECONDARY POPULATION	University, yeshiva and teachers' college tutors
SETTING	Flexible - such as student's home cinema, classroom, etc.
INITIAL POPULATION	1971 - 50 pairs of tutors and tutees
CURRENT POPULATION	1982 - 8000 pairs of tutors and tutees
ACTIVITIES	Varied: help with homework, games, movies, trips, etc.
DURATION OF PROJECT	One year
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Project: Ministry of Education and Culture, universities. Evaluation: funded by Van Leer Foundation, Holland.

TUTORIAL PROJECT

PERACH

Evaluations of the Project

	I	II	III
PAPER	Eisenberg, T., Fresko, M. and Carmeli, M. A Tutorial Project for Disadvantaged Children. An Evaluation of the Perach Project 1980.	Same names. A Follow-Up Study on Perach Children Two Years After Tutoring. Jan. 1982	Interim Report April 1982
OBJECTIVES	To evaluate the results of the tutorial program and the tutees' attitudes toward the program.	To determine the delayed effects of Perach on children.	To evaluate Perach efforts on younger children (grades 3 and 4).
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Cognitive achievements attitudes toward school, self concept.	Delayed effects on academic self concept, aspirations and attitudes toward school and Perach.	
TARGET POPULATION	466 tutees	243 tutees	59 tutees 3rd and 6th grade children
SETTING			
INSTRUMENTS	Standardized tests - reading comprehension, math, English, Tenessee self concept scale.		
FINDINGS	Tutees were not progressing faster in cognitive achievement than control group. They did exhibit more satisfaction in school and read more books. No differences in self concept and attitudes toward society.	Tutees exhibited higher educational and occupational aspiration. High evaluation of Perach in retrospect.	Positive effects in the cognitive realm. No clear-cut effects on self concept, sociometric scores and in the effective area.

THE STANDARD PROGRAM 1981

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Increasing scholastic achievements
TARGET POPULATION	Disadvantaged children
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	Flexible
INITIAL POPULATION	1980-81: 47 tutors 1981-82: 30 tutors
CURRENT POPULATION	
ACTIVITIES	Flexible. Tutors received extensive guidance and were under supervision.
DURATION OF PROJECT	Two years
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	NCJW Institute for Innovation in Education; School of Education, Hebrew University.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Davis, Daniel, Standardized Evaluation of Educational Programs, 1981
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Scholastic achievements, tutor's guidance
TARGET POPULATION	Tutees
SECONDARY POPULATION	Tutors
SETTING	School
INSTRUMENTS	Tests, teachers' questionnaires, grades
FINDINGS	The effect of tutoring on achievement is much greater in a strong guidance framework than in a non-guidance framework.

A STUDENT VOLUNTEER PROGRAM FOR CHILDREN FROM DISADVANTAGED NEIGHBORHOODS

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Preventive work in the field of mental health.
TARGET POPULATION	Children from schools in disadvantaged neighborhoods in Jerusalem.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Tutors - undergraduate psychology students. Approximately 17 each year.
SETTING	Flexible
INITIAL POPULATION	1975-78: approximately 20 children each year
CURRENT POPULATION	
ACTIVITIES	Group activities--trips drama, games and discussions guided by principals from the field of mental health. Guidance and supervision.
DURATION OF PROJECT	One year
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Hebrew University of Jerusalem

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Osterweil, Z. and Feingold, H. A Student Volunteer Program for Children from Disadvantaged Neighborhoods 1981
WHAT IS EVALUATED	
TARGET POPULATION	Tutees (20 a year)
SECONDARY POPULATION	Tutors (17 a year)
SETTING	Flexible
INSTRUMENTS	Teacher's ratings, human figure drawings, sociometric questionnaire, tutors' reports.
FINDINGS	Tutees: improvements in moral behavior (according to teacher's reports), positive changes in "Human Figure Drawings" and in sociometric status.
	Tutors: reported on psychological changes (self-concept).

HIGH SCHOOL TUTORS

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Increasing scholastic achievements, improving attitudes toward school, improving self concept (motivation, self confidence) and relationships with friends and family
TARGET POPULATION	Pupils from Grades 7 to 10 from disadvantaged schools
SECONDARY POPULATION	High school tutors
SETTING	Mostly at school, some at neighborhood center
INITIAL POPULATION	1971 - no data
CURRENT POPULATION	1982-83: 4000 tutors
ACTIVITIES	Mostly scholastic
DURATION OF PROJECT	One year
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Project: Ministry of Education and Culture. Evaluation: NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, The Hebrew University.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Shprinzak, D., An Evaluation Study of Tutorial Projects. Final report, 1975.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Math and English achievement locus of control, self-image attitudes toward school educational ambition
TARGET POPULATION	194 tutees
SECONDARY POPULATION	153 tutors
SETTING	25 schools
INSTRUMENTS	Achievement tests, teacher's grades, personality and attitudes, self reports.
FINDINGS	Tutees: scored better on math grades and on English test, but not better on math test and English grades. A negative effect on locus of control and on self-image in secular schools. In religious schools there was no difference on self-image. Tutors: positive effect on measures of internal control. Higher on English test and better attitudes toward school.

TUTORIAL PROJECT FOR MUTUAL HELP OF YOUTH IN ROMEMA, JERUSALEM

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	To help the tutees to adapt to the formal education system and provide them with positive models for identification
TARGET POPULATION	Lower middle class pupils in 1st to 3rd grades
SECONDARY POPULATION	Tutors - 9th to 11th graders
SETTING	Flexible
INITIAL POPULATION	1980-83: 24 pairs of tutors/tutees each year
CURRENT POPULATION	
ACTIVITIES	Help with homework, arts and crafts, trips, games
DURATION OF PROJECT	One year
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	National Insurance Institute, Community Center-Romema, Jerusalem.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Paynton, N. Tutorial Project for Mutual Help of Youth in Romema, Jerusalem, 1981
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Behavior in school, sociometric status, tendency towards passivity
TARGET POPULATION	Tutees: 24 November 1979-April 1980
SECONDARY POPULATION	Tutors: 24 November 1979-April 1980
SETTING	School
INSTRUMENTS	Teacher's reports on school behavior, and on cognitive achievements, sociometric scale, tutor's reports.
FINDINGS	Positive effect on 75% of the children, particularly in self concept. (The improvement is only partly significant.) No change in tendency toward passivity. Positive effect on tutors with respect to their performance as tutors, satisfaction with their work and increased social integration in the neighborhood.

TUTORIAL PROJECT

"CHILDREN TEACH CHILDREN"

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Increasing the tutee's scholastic achievements. Improving his self concept, behavior and attitudes toward school, relationship with friends and family.
TARGET POPULATION	Tutees: 5th graders
SECONDARY POPULATION	Tutors: 7th graders
SETTING	Flexible
INITIAL POPULATION	1976-77: 101 pairs of tutor-tutee.
CURRENT POPULATION	
ACTIVITIES	Emphasis on school learning, but social activities were included, such as hiking, sports, watching movie or T.V.
DURATION OF PROJECT	Six months
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Hebrew University (M.A. Thesis)

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Prinz, Doron, Tutorial Project, Children Teach Children. Effect of the Program on Tutees. 1977
OBJECTIVES	
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Scholastic achievements, different affective measures.
TARGET POPULATION	Tutees
SECONDARY POPULATION	Tutors
SETTING	Flexible
INSTRUMENTS	Achievement tests, self report affective measures.
FINDINGS	The findings were ambiguous. (There was a large drop-out rate - more than 50%).

MANOF

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Rehabilitation of disattached youth.
TARGET POPULATION	Disattached youth aged between 15 and 17 (boys only).
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	Residential Education Center in Nahariya and then transition to kibbutz. Pre-academic program at university and the schools.
INITIAL POPULATION	30 youths in 1975.
CURRENT POPULATION	90 youths annually.
ACTIVITIES	Vocational training, academic studies and enrichment courses, resocialization so boys will be able to perform nondeviant adult roles.
DURATION OF PROJECT	
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Initiated by Youth Department of Ministry of Education and Culture and NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education. Funded by Ministry of Education and Culture, Yad Hanadiv Fund, Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare, and the Youth Aliyah Department of the Jewish Agency.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Gottlieb, Avi, The Rehabilitation of Disattached Youth in Residential Frameworks, Stage A, MANOF and KEDMA, NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education, 1983.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	This paper attempts to localize and identify the rehabilitation and educational processes in MANOF, in comparison with KEDMA.
TARGET POPULATION	The youths in MANOF (and KEDMA).
SECONDARY POPULATION	The staff of MANOF (and KEDMA).
SETTING	Various places where MANOF's activities take place.
INSTRUMENTS	Intensive observations, interviews with staff and pupils and a survey of a sample of the pupils.
FINDINGS	MANOF encounters many problems in rehabilitating youth within its framework: a considerable drop-out rate, non-normative behavior, and difficulties in academic studies for some of the youths. However, according to the researcher, there are impressive achievements in changing youths' behavior and improving their self-image. There are also academic achievements, among others MANOF graduates have been accepted to university pre-academic programs.

KEDMA

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Rehabilitation of disattached youth.
TARGET POPULATION	14 to 16 year old alienated and severely deprived youths (boys and girls), mainly from southern Israel.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	KEDMA youth village in southern Israel.
INITIAL POPULATION	KEDMA was set up in April 1980 with several youths.
CURRENT POPULATION	60 youths.
ACTIVITIES	Formal learning activities: academic studies and vocational training. Structured social activities: group activities and discussions, and voluntary extracurricular activities. Regular duties in kitchen, dining room and in agriculture.
DURATION OF PROJECT	3 to 4 years.
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Ministry of Education and Culture; Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare; Kibbutz Hatzerim.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Gottlieb, Avi, The Rehabilitation of Disattached Youth in Residential Frameworks, Stage A, MANOF and KEDMA. NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education. 1983.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	This paper attempts to localize and identify the rehabilitative and educational processes in KEDMA, in comparison with MANOF.
TARGET POPULATION	The youths in KEDMA.
SECONDARY POPULATION	The staff of KEDMA (and MANOF).
SETTING	The KEDMA youth village (and MANOF).
INSTRUMENTS	Intensive observations, interviews with staff and pupils and a survey of a sample of the pupils.
FINDINGS	KEDMA encounters many problems in fulfilling its objectives, such as the dropout rate, non-normative behavior and difficulties in academic studies. KEDMA also has particular problems in rehabilitating girls. However, according to the researcher, there are impressive achievements in changing youths' behavior and improving their self-image, which counterbalance the problems. Accordingly, it is worthwhile to continue and expand frameworks such as KEDMA.

RESIDENTIAL CENTERS

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Resocialization of youth.
TARGET POPULATION	Youths aged 14 to 17.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Family/Community
SETTING	Urban centers; kibbutzim.
INITIAL POPULATION	
CURRENT POPULATION	Up to 20% of all students in Israel over 14 years of age.
ACTIVITIES	Curricular and extra-curricular activities.
DURATION OF PROJECT	
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Jewish Agency, Department of Youth Aliyah; Ministry of Education and Culture.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Rapaport, C., Rimor, M., Mano, C., The Influence of Educational Frameworks of Disadvantaged Pupils in the Disadvantaged and Residential Education Centers. Shraga Adiel et al., 1980.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	Changes in scholastic achievements, in motivation and personality.
TARGET POPULATION	3,800 students entering the 9th grade.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	42 educational institutions; youth villages of all types; day centers.
INSTRUMENTS	Achievement, motivation and personality tests.
FINDINGS	All the groups showed progress in math and in reading comprehension; achievements and motivations (see Table 1). Personality variables improved to some degree but remained below the national average.

YOUTH IN DISTRESS

Description of the Project

	STREET CORNER GROUPS	YOUTH GROUPS
OBJECTIVES	Reach out and the social, educational and occupational reintegration of disassociated youth.	The same.
TARGET POPULATION	Youths aged 14 to 18 who neither work nor study, or who are delinquents or on the verge of delinquency.	The same.
SECONDARY POPULATION		
SETTING	The street-centers.	The same.
INITIAL POPULATION		
CURRENT POPULATION	About 125 groups	About 200 groups with 3,000 youths.
ACTIVITIES	Varied informal and recreative activities	The same.
DURATION OF THE PROJECT		
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	The Agency for Youth in Distress in the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare.	Youth Department of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

YOUTH IN DISTRESS

Street Corner Groups and Youth Groups

Evaluations of the Project

PAPER	Dery, David, Youth who do not Study or Work, Analysis of the Problem and Recommendations, The Deputy Prime Minister's Office, 1979.	Volansky, Ami, Working with Street Corner Groups, Tel Aviv University, 1979.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	The composition of Street Corner Groups and their dynamics, objectives of the activity, and the role of the counselor.	The role of the counselor and the composition of the Street Corner Groups.
TARGET POPULATION	Street Corner Groups and their counselors.	Street Corner Groups and counselors.
SECONDARY POPULATION		
SETTING	The neighborhood	The same.
INSTRUMENTS		
FINDINGS	The average age of group members is 17.4 years and 44% are over 18 years old. Counselors, supervisors and coordinators of street corner groups emphasize the lack of opportunities for group members to obtain appropriate employment, an obstacle in their reintegration into society.	The average age of group members is 17.1 years, an indication that the contact with these youths begins too late. 58% of youths who said they had turned to the counselor felt that they had undergone changes, while 74.1% who did not turn to counselors felt that they had experienced no change ($P \leq 0.05$).

YOUTH IN DISTRESS

Street Corner Groups and Youth Groups

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Shlesinger, Ch., Supervision of Street Corner Groups, Research Report, Ministry of Education and Culture, 1978.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	The role of the counselor, the composition of the groups and the degree of success in reintegration of disassociated youth.
TARGET POPULATION	Members of street corner groups and youth groups, and the counselors.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	The neighborhood.
INSTRUMENTS	
FINDINGS	In the groups studied, the researcher found that the average of of the youths was 17.4 years old. 48.5% of their members either work or study (i.e., are not disassociated). A high proportion are 19 years old or over. The counselors therefore reach the target population, as well as other youth.

GIRLS IN DISTRESS

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Rehabilitation of girls in distress, who neither study nor work.
TARGET POPULATION	Girls in distress, aged 14 to 21, who neither study nor work, who have no stable social ties.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	Various
INITIAL POPULATION	
CURRENT POPULATION	About 2,400 girls, aged 14 to 21.
ACTIVITIES	From elementary educational activities to military service.
DURATION OF THE PROJECT	
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Ministry of Education and Culture; Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare.

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Dery, D., Itzkovitch, D., Improving the Welfare of Girls in Distress: Evaluation and Recommendations. Social Policy Team, The Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, 1980.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	The system of services provided for girls in distress.
TARGET POPULATION	Girls in distress.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	Two largest branches of the Agency in Tel Aviv and Jerusalem.
INSTRUMENTS	In-depth analysis.
FINDINGS	The Agency makes no attempt to locate girls needing treatment, it only provides treatment when the problem has already occurred. The percentage of girls neither working nor studying has remained constant, around 7.5% over the last years.

TEHILA

An Educational Program for the Adult Learner

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Elementary education for adults.
TARGET POPULATION	Adults.
SECONDARY POPULATION	
SETTING	76 centers throughout the country.
INITIAL POPULATION	
CURRENT POPULATION	16,000 (1982)
ACTIVITIES	Reading and writing, math and oral self-expression.
DURATION OF THE PROJECT	
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Ministry of Education and Culture, Department of Adult Education; local municipalities; community centers; workers' committees; women's organizations; and Project Renewal.

There is no evaluation study of this project.

SHELEF

Description of the Project

OBJECTIVES	Meaningful and challenging experiences for youngsters involved, in an interethnic contact situation.
TARGET POPULATION	Twelfth grade pupils from large towns who volunteer to live and study for a year in a development town.
SECONDARY POPULATION	Pupils of development town who study together with the volunteers.
SETTING	School and special apartments of the pupils in the development towns.
INITIAL POPULATION	1977-78: 15 boys and girls who went to Kiryat Shmona and Kiryat Malachi.
CURRENT POPULATION	1978-80: 49
ACTIVITIES	Pupils continue 12th grade studies in development town high school. Various formal and informal contacts with development town population.
DURATION OF PROJECT	One school year.
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	Ministry of Education and Culture; Israeli Scout Movement

Evaluation of the Project

PAPER	Ichilov, Orit and Even-Dar, Shira. Interethnic Contacts in an Alternative Educational Environment: The Israeli SHELEF Project. School of Education, Tel Aviv University, 1982.
WHAT IS EVALUATED	The interethnic contact situation provided by SHELEF and its consequences concerning change of ethnic stereotypes among SHELEF participants.
TARGET POPULATION	SHELEF participants.
SECONDARY POPULATION	A control group of 62 12th grade boys and girls selected from the same schools from which SHELEF members come and matched to SHELEF group in terms of academic status and socioeconomic background.
SETTING	
INSTRUMENTS	An anonymous questionnaire administered to SHELEF participants and to members of the control group at the beginning and end of the school year.
FINDINGS	Direct contacts with development town people have helped to change existing stereotypes. Among SHELEF participants a differentiation was created in the generalized image of Jew from Eastern countries and development town inhabitants.

BRIDGING THE GAP

Description of the Project		Evaluation of the Project	
OBJECTIVES	Recruiting and assisting university students to advance themselves and to contribute to their own communities.	PAPER	Yishai, Yael, University Graduates and Political Development: The Case of Israel. Department of Political Science, University of Haifa, Haifa, 1982, 26 p.
TARGET POPULATION	Students from deprived areas.	WHAT IS EVALUATED	Inquiring into ways and means whereby higher education affects the process of change, either at the individual or group level.
SECONDARY POPULATION		TARGET POPULATION	183 university graduates - Humanities and Social Sciences. 126 university graduates-Technion-Israel Institute of Technology. (All of them from the unit for Bridging the Gap.)
SETTING	University of Haifa.	SECONDARY POPULATION	
INITIAL POPULATION		SETTING	University of Haifa.
CURRENT POPULATION	2,500 students (of which 309 have already graduated).	INSTRUMENTS	Questionnaires sent through the mail.
ACTIVITIES	Ongoing contacts with local institutions for the recruitment of candidates for higher education from deprived areas. Financial, tutorial and counseling assistance.	FINDINGS	Students who undergo a process of socialization in addition to their regular academic curricula do get more involved in public affairs than their co-students whose higher education is not geared to social purpose. Since the study covered only a relatively short period after their graduation, no decisive conclusions can be drawn as to the duration of the graduates' elite roles. The social aspect of development via higher education is also ambiguous.
DURATION OF PROJECT	Throughout the course of university studies.		
INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED	University of Haifa.		

Table 1: Distribution of Jewish Population at Large and of School Age Cohorts Specifically by Father's Continent of Birth

	Father's Continent of Birth			Totals	
	Europe-America	Asia-Africa	Israel		
	Percentages				Absolute Numbers
		Population - Total			
1966	47.0	46.5	6.5	100.0	2,344,877
1969	44.6	47.8	7.5	100.0	2,496,438
1975	43.3	46.4	10.3	100.0	2,959,400
1978	41.9	45.6	12.5	100.0	3,141,200
		Age 3 - 4			
1966	23.7	60.6	15.7	100.0	95,453
1969	21.2	58.8	20.0	100.0	102,789
1975	24.0	48.9	27.1	100.0	131,400
1978	22.3	43.5	34.2	100.0	143,946
		Age 5			
1966	25.3	60.6	14.1	100.0	47,392
1969	22.5	59.6	17.9	100.0	49,747
1975	24.6	50.5	24.9	100.0	62,600
1978	23.6	46.1	30.3	100.0	67,170
		Age 6 - 13			
1966	32.0	58.0	10.0	100.0	395,951
1969	27.7	59.8	12.5	100.0	392,452
1975	25.2	56.2	18.6	100.0	431,300
1978	24.9	52.4	22.6	100.0	475,420
		Age 14 - 17			
1966	43.6	49.9	6.5	100.0	208,863
1969	36.1	56.4	7.5	100.0	209,316
1975	30.3	58.7	11.1	100.0	209,100
1978	27.9	57.7	14.3	100.0	205,680
		Age 20 - 24			
1966	43.5	51.5	5.0	100.0	183,142
1969	50.2	44.9	4.9	100.0	237,425
1975	39.9	53.6	6.5	100.0	287,800
1978	36.2	55.9	7.3	100.0	276,800

Source: Egozi, M., The Educational System in Numbers, 1980.

Table 2: The Educational Level of the Jewish Population by Continent of Birth, 1961-1980 (Percentages)

		0	1-4	5-8	9-12	13+	Total
TOTAL	1961	12.6	7.5	35.4	34.6	9.9	100.0
	1971	9.0	6.3	30.1	40.8	13.8	100.0
	1980	6.4	3.9	21.3	47.6	20.8	100.0
Born in Israel	1961	2.2	1.9	26.3	54.2	15.3	100.0
	1971	1.0	1.3	20.5	59.4	17.8	100.0
	1980	0.7	0.7	11.2	63.3	24.1	100.0
Born in Asia-Africa	1961	31.5	10.1	36.2	19.2	3.0	100.0
	1971	23.5	8.6	36.4	26.5	5.0	100.0
	1980	19.4	6.0	30.8	34.9	8.9	100.0
Born in Europe-America	1961	3.2	7.6	37.9	38.5	12.7	100.0
	1971	2.4	8.3	32.4	38.5	18.4	100.0
	1980	2.6	6.0	25.6	39.2	26.6	100.0
Born in Israel Father born in Israel	1961	4.4	3.1	34.2	45.1	13.3	100.0
	1971	2.5	3.3	23.1	51.0	22.1	100.0
	1980	0.6	1.0	10.6	64.9	22.8	100.0
Born in Israel Father born in Asia-Africa	1961	4.2	4.4	52.3	34.6	4.5	100.0
	1971	1.1	1.6	35.0	57.5	4.8	100.0
	1980	1.0	0.9	17.2	70.3	10.6	100.0
Born in Israel Father born in Europe-America	1961	0.6	0.7	14.5	64.5	19.7	100.0
	1971	0.4	0.5	8.8	63.6	22.6	100.0
	1980	0.4	0.4	4.6	54.1	38.5	100.0

Source: The Educational System in Numbers, 1982.

Table 3: Kindergarten and Day Care Center Attendance of 2, 3 and 4 Year Olds by Socioeconomic Characteristics

	2 year olds			3 year olds			4 year olds		
	1976	1978	1979	1976	1978	1979	1976	1978	1979
Total number of children (in thousands)	66.5	72.9	74.9	64.9	70.2	73.3	66.5	66.9	70.6
Attending kindergarten (in thousands)	30.8	41.7	41.9	51.7	62.2	64.5	62.3	64.8	68.5
	For each 100 persons in the appropriate population the following percentage attended kindergarten								
Total	46	57	56	80	89	88	94	97	97
Continent of Birth									
Israel	55	63	61	80	93	92	95	98	99
Asia	38	46	47	78	83	83	91	96	95
Africa	40			[illegible]			92		
Europe and America	49	70	65	88	94	91	95	97	97
Type of Settlement									
3 large cities	42	56	54	77	90	91	92	97	96
Established towns and urban settlements	53	54	55	82	92	88	94	98	98
Development towns and new urban settlements	30	53	50	72	80	84	90	93	95
Villages (inc. kibbutzim and moshavim	64	74	79	88	88	93	99	100	97
No. of persons in family									
1 - 3	58	66	75	87	92	86	94	95	100
7+	39	46	43	67	83	81	80	94	97
Father's years of education									
0 - 8	37	45	38	74	83	82	90	96	93
9 - 12	47	56	57	82	90	90	95	98	97
13+	58	72	70	85	93	92	96	97	100
Mother's work									
Outside the home	62	78	76	91	94	97	97	98	99
Housewife	39	45	43	74	86	83	92	96	95

Source: Egozi, M., The Educational System in Numbers, 1980

Table 4: School Attendance Rates of 14 to 17 Year Olds Between 1966-67 and 1978-79 (Jewish schools)
Rates per 1000 in the relevant age group in the Jewish population

	A G E				
	14	15	16	17	14-17 TOTAL
1966-67	850	684	541	377	620
1969-70	910	742	603	438	668
1972-73	920	766	611	483	692
1976-77	940	829	681	553	748
1978-79	945	852	730	609	785

Source: Egozi, M., The Educational System in Numbers, 1980.

Table 5: Gaps in School Attendance in Secondary Education of 17 year olds by Father's Continent of Origin, Sex, and Type of High School, 1963-64 -- 1978-79

Year	Europe-America			Asia-Africa		
	Vocational	Academic	Total	Vocational	Academic	Total
			T O T A L			
1963-64	95	352	447	55	103	158
1972-73	199	448	647	196	136	332
1978-79	257	443	700	328	191	519
			B O Y S			
1963-64	117	295	412	63	97	160
1972-73	247	395	592	184	98	282
1978-79	310	340	650	303	128	431
			G I R L S			
1963-64	70	414	584	46	110	56
1972-73	148	553	701	210	175	385
1978-79	202	552	754	354	257	611

Source: Egozi, M., The Educational System in Numbers, 1980.

Table 6: 14 to 17 Year Olds in Study and Work (Jews -- 1969-1978)

	Girls		Boys		Total	
	1969	1978	1969	1978	1969	1978
TOTAL						
in thousands	102.6	100.0	107.9	105.4	210.5	205.4
percentages	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
WORKING - Total	22.0	10.6	27.1	13.6	24.7	12.1
Studying	5.1	5.8	8.0	8.2	6.6	7.0
Not Studying	16.9	4.7	19.1	5.0	18.1	4.9
Unknown	-	(0.1)	-	(0.4)	-	(0.2)
NOT WORKING - Total	77.9	89.4	72.8	86.4	75.3	87.9
Studying	69.5	81.4	62.6	76.4	66.0	78.8
Not Studying	8.4	7.5	10.2	9.2	9.3	8.4
Unknown	-	(0.6)	-	(0.8)	-	(0.7)

Source: Egozi, M., The Educational System in Numbers, 1980.

Table 7: Rates of 14 to 17 Year Olds Neither Working nor Studying by Age, Religion and Sex (average for 1975-76)

Age	Non-Jews			Jews		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
TOTAL	46.5	6.0	28.3	6.9	8.3	7.6
14-15	36.7	5.2	20.6	2.7	4.0	3.3
16-17	58.8	7.1	37.1	10.8	12.6	11.7

Source: Egozi, M., The Educational System in Numbers, 1980.

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The NCJW Research Institute for Innovation in Education List

SECTION A: INTERVENTION PROGRAMS AIMED AT THE FAMILY

-HIPPY (HAETGAR)
—HATAF
—TOY LIBRARIES
—PARENT INSTRUCTION GROUPS
—KEDMA
—FAMILY SITUATION

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-TOAM

NILI

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-YULA AND YOCHAI
-THE SUPPORT SYSTEM
-TUTORIAL PROJECTS

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STREET CORNER GROUPS - YOUTH IN DISTRESS
GIRLS IN DISTRESS

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חטיבה א': תכניות התערבות במשפחה

- האתג"ר
- הט"ף
- משחקיות
- חוגי הדרכה להורים באיזורי מצוקה
- קדמ"ה - קבוצות דיון מורים-הורים
- מצב משפחתי - פרוייקט להורים

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- נילי
- תוא"ם

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- המערך המסייע
- חונכות

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איכילוב, אורית; חן, מיכאל; לוי, אריה.
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- מנו"פ וקדמה
- פנימיות

מנו"פ וקדמה

אדלר, חיים.
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חטיבה ה': תכניות התערבות לגישור בין המוסדות החינוכיים לבין הנוער במצוקה.

- חבורות רחוב - נערים במצוקה.
- נערות במצוקה.

חבורות רחוב - נערים במצוקה.

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וולנסקי,עמי.
העבודה בחבורות רחוב: צרכים, אמצעים ותיפקוד המערכת. החוג לקרימינולוגיה ולמשפט פלילי, הפקולטה למשפטים, אוניברסיטת ת"א, 1979. 118 ע'. (עבודת מ.א.).

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חוברת ד', ינואר 1978. 109 ע'.
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ועדת ראש הממשלה לילדים ובני נוער במצוקה, דו"ח הצוות חינוך בלתי פורמלי ועבודה קהילתית. (ירושלים), 1972. 150 ע'. (חיים אדלר יו"ר).

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דו"ח הוועדה לאלטרנטיבות חינוכיות וטיפוליות לבני נוער שמחוץ למסגרות הלימוד וההכשרה.
ירושלים, תש"ם. 160 ע'. (יו"ר הוועדה - חיים אדלר).

ישראל. משרד העבודה והרווחה, הרשות לתכנון כח-אדם.
נוער בלימודים ועבודה. ירושלים, מרץ 1979. 119 ע'.

לוין,מרים; מטה,לוי,אמה; גרנט,מרילין (עורכים).
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לנדאו,שמחה; הרן,גור.
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שורר,רן.
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שלזינגר,ח.
הצד השני של המטבע, היבטים נוספים על תכנית הרווחה החנוכית בקרית-שמונה. האגף לחינוך, עיריית קרית-שמונה ותיאום טיפוח ורווחה, לשכת המנהל הכללי, משרד החינוך והתרבות, ירושלים, תשל"ט. 1979. 78 ע'.

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מרכזי למידה פעילה - רקע תיאורטי וניתוח מקרה. עיריית קרית-שמונה, האגף לחינוך, משרד החינוך והתרבות, לשכת המנהל הכללי, 1978.

שלזינגר,ח.
סקר הנחייה בחבורות רחוב. דו"ח מחקר. היחידה למחקר ולמעקב, אגף הנוער, משרד החינוך והתרבות, ירושלים, יוני 1978, תשל"ח. 71 ע'.

שלזינגר,חיים.
קרית-נוער. נסיון לטיפול בנוער המצוקה בקרית-שמונה, נתוח מקרה על רקע הישוב. אגף החינוך, עיריית קרית-שמונה ואגף הנוער מחוז הצפון, תאום טיפוח ורווחה, לשכת המנהל הכללי, משרד החינוך והתרבות, ירושלים, מרץ 1980, 77 ע'.

שורר,רן.
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(ערכה: ויקי בן-נתן שירן).

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קידום רווחתן של נערות במצוקה: בדיקת מערכת והמלצות לשיפור. לשכת סגן ראש-הממשלה, צוות מדיניות חברתית, ירושלים, יוני 1980. 29 ע'. (עוזר מחקר: דורון איצקוביץ).

חטיבה ו': תכניות התערבות בחינוך למבוגרים.

תהילה - (ראה באנגלית).

נספח לחטיבה ו' - נשים

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שרני,שושנה.
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חטיבה ז': הארגון הבלתי-פורמלי.

- שלף.
- הארגון הבלתי-פורמלי בעיירת פיתוח.
- מחנות קיץ.

שלף - (ראה באנגלית).

הארגון הבלתי פורמלי בעיירת פיתוח

שפירא,רינה; קשתי,יצחק (מרכזי המחקר).
חינוך בישוב פיתוח: היבטים חברתיים ופסיכולוגיים. ביה"ס לחינוך, אוניברסיטת ת"א, תשמ"ב, 1981. 2 חלקים. (פרוייקט של חוקרים בביה"ס לחינוך של אוניברסיטת ת"א בריכוזם של רינה שפירא ויצחק קשתי).

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המנחה כסוכן סוציאליזציה תפקידית: נסוי בהפעלת מערכת הנחיה למדריכים צעירים בעיירות פיתוח. המכון לחקר הטיפוח בחינוך, ביה"ס לחינוך, האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים, 1977, 47 ע'.

גור,עמוס.
תיאור והערכה ראשוניים של נסיון בטיפוח יצרתיות במחנה קיץ נסיוני. המכון לחקר הטיפוח בחינוך, ביה"ס לחינוך, האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים ואגף הנוער, משרד החינוך והתרבות, ירושלים, 1976, 17 ע'.

כהנא,ראובן; רפופורט,תמר.
ניתוח מהלך מחנות קיץ (1976) וכווני השפעתם על צעירים ט"ט: סקירה תיאורית בעקבות תצפית משתתפת. המכון לחקר הטפוח בחינוך, ביה"ס לחינוך, האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים, 1978. 59 ע' (דו"ח בינייים).

כהנא,ראובן; רפופורט,תמר; זוסמן,יעקב.
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רפופורט,תמר; כהנא,ראובן.
מדידת תפישת המבנה בארגונים בלתי-פורמליים: ניתוח מקרה "מחנה קיץ". אגף הנוער, החינוך המשלים, היחידה לתכנים, משרד החינוך והתרבות 1977, 39 ע'. (דו"ח מחקר ביניים. הוכן ע"י המכון לחקר הטיפוח בחינוך, האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים).

רפופורט,תמר.
המבנה של מסגרות בלתי פורמליות והשפעתן על הצעירים: ניתוח המקרה של מחנות קיץ.
האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים. 480 ע'. (חיבור לקבלת תואר ד"ר, בהדרכת ראובן כהנא וחיים אדלר).

רפופורט,תמר.
מרכיבי שביעות רצון והערכה במחנות נוער (ממצאים ראשונים מן המחנות הלמודיים שקיים משרד החינוך לילדים ט"ט בקיץ 1972). המרכז לחקר חינוכם של תלמידים ט"ט, ביה"ס לחינוך, האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים, 1972. 45 ע' (פנימי).

רפופורט,תמר; אפלבאום,מ.; כהנא,ראובן.
השתתפות בארגון חינוכי בלתי-פורמלי (מחנה נוער) והשפעתה על פיתוח משאבים: ניתוח חבורים של משתתפים. המכון לחקר הטיפוח בחינוך, ביה"ס לחינוך, האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים, 1975. 35 ע'.

רפופורט,תמר; סופר,לורה; כהנא,ראובן.
תפישת תפקיד בארגונים בלתי פורמליים. המכון לחקר הטיפוח בחינוך, ביה"ס לחינוך, האוניברסיטה העברית בירושלים, מרץ 1978. 28 ע'. (דו"ח בינייים).

חטיבה ח': תכניות התערבות בקהילה

- גישור הפערים
- תכנית הרווחה החינוכית

גישור הפערים

ישי, יעל.
דו"ח מחקר בוגרי היחידה לגישור פערים. היחידה לגישור הפערים, אוניברסיטת חיפה, פברואר 1982. 24 ע'.

תכנית הרווחה החינוכית

דיוויס, דן; שפרינצק, דליה; אוסיזון, רנה.
מי נהנה ממשאבי החינוך? חלוקת התשומות החינוכיות ברמת בית-ספר. חוליית המעקב וההערכה, טיפוח רווחה ושיקום שכונות, לשכת המנהל הכללי, משרד החינוך והתרבות, ירושלים, טבת תשמ"ג, דצמבר 1982. 67 ע'.

שפרינצק, דליה; בלנקט, רנה; טולצ'ינסקי, לילי אנה; בן-אליהו, שלמה.
תכנית הרווחה החינוכית בראש-העין ובקרית-גת. דו"ח מעקב מס' 3, תיאום טפוח ורווחה, לשכת המנהל הכללי, משרד החינוך והתרבות ירושלים, תש"ם 1979. 174 ע'.

שפרינצק, דליה; בן-אליהו, שלמה; לוין, יאיר; מרק, יחזקאל.
תכנית הרווחה החינוכית. תכנית שלבי הגיל. סקירת רקע ודו"ח לשנת הלמודים תשל"ו, מס' 1. תיאום טפוח ורווחה, לשכת המנהל הכללי משרד החינוך והתרבות, ירושלים, תשל"ח 1977. 106 ע'.

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